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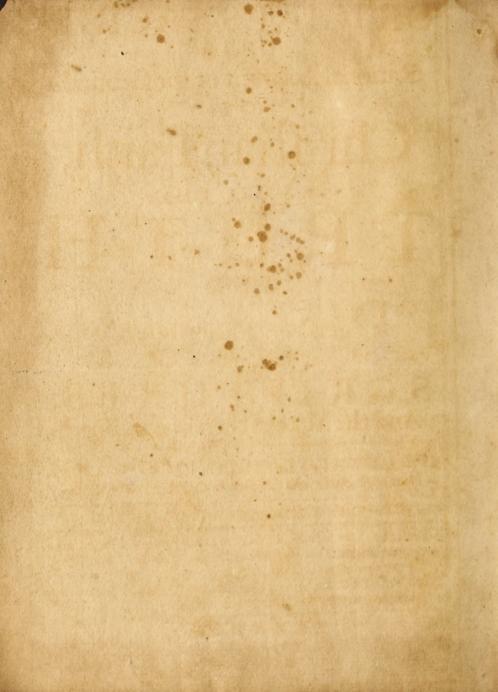


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ORIGINES SACRÆ:

OR, A

Rational Account of the Grounds

Christian Faith,

AS TO THE

AND

COURY OF PHINOETA Divine Authority Jun 29 1918

OFTHE

SCRIPTURES,

And the Matters therein contained.

By Edward Stillingfleet, D. D.

Dean of St. Paul's, and Chaplain in Ordinary to His Majesty.

The fifth Edition Corrected and Amended.

2 Pet. 1. 16. For we have not followed cunningly-devised Fables, when we made known to you the power and coming of our Lord Jesus Christ, but were eye-witnesses of his Majesty.

Neque religio ulla fine sapientia suscipienda est, nec ulla sine religione probanda sapientia, Lactant. de fals. relig. cap. 1.

LONDON.

Printed by J. H. for Henry Mortlock at the Phanix in St. Paul's Church-yard, and at the White Hart in Westminster-Hall, 1680.

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To his most Honoured Friend and Patron,

S. ROGER BURGOIN, Knight and Baronet.

SIR,

T was the early felicity of Moses, when exposed in an Ark of Nilotick papyre, to be adopted into the favour of so great a personage as the Daughter of Pharaoh: Such another Ark is this vindication of the writings of that Divine and excellent Person exposed to the world in; and the greatest ambition of the Author of it, is, to have it received into your Patronage and Protection. But although the contexture and frame of this Treatise be far below the excellency and worth of the subject (as you know the Ark in which Moses was put, was of bulrushes daubed with slime and pitch) yet when You please to cast your eye on the matter contained in it, you will not think it beneath your Favour, and unworthy, your Protection. For if Truth be the greatest Present

De Isid. & Osir.

Present which God could bestow, or man receive (according to that of Plutarch, wis & Dev and points λαβείν μείζον, ε χαρίζεδαι θεώ σεμνότες ον άληθείας) then certainly those Truths deserve our most ready acceptance, which are in themselves of greatest importance, and have the greatest evidence that they come from God. And although I have had the happiness of so near relation to You, and acquaintance with You, as to know how little You need such discourses which tend to settle the Foundations of Religion, which you have raised so happy a Superstructure upon; yet withal I consider what particular Kindness the souls of all good men bear to such Designs, whose end is to affert and vindicate the Truth and Excellency of Religion. those who are enriched themselves with the inestimable Treasure of true Goodness and Piety are far from that envious temper, to think nothing valuable but what they are the sole Possessors of; but Such are the most satisfied themselves, when they see others not only admire but enjoy what they have the highest estimation of. Were all who make a shew of Religion in the World really such as they pretend to be, discourses of this nature would be no more feafonable than the commendations of a great Beauty to one who is already a passionate admirer of it; but on the contrary we see how common it is for

men first to throw dirt in the face of Religion, and then persuade themselves it is its natural Complexion; they represent it to themselves in a shape least pleasing to them, and then bring that as a Plea

why they give it no better entertainment.

It may justly seem strange, that true Religion, which contains nothing in it but what is truly Noble and Generous, most rational and pleasing to the spirits of all good men, should yet suffer so much in its esteem in the world, through those strange and uncouth vizards it is represented under: Some accounting the life and practice of it, as it speaks subduing our wills to the will of God (which is the substance of all Religion) a thing too low and mean for their rank and condition in the World, while others pretend a quarrel against the principles of it as unsatisfactory to Humane reason. Thus Religion suffers with the Author of it between two Thieves, and it is hard to define which is most injurious to it, that which questions the Principles, or that which despiseth the Practice of it. And nothing certainly will more incline men to believe that we live in an Age of Prodigies, than that there should be any such in the Christian World who should account it a piece of Gentility to despise Religion, and a piece of Reason to be Atheists. For if there be any Juch thing in the World as a true heighth and magnani-

nanimity of spirit, if there be any solid reason and depth of judgment, they are not only consistent with, but only attainable by a true generous spirit of Religion. But if we look at that which the loofe and profane World is apt to account the greatest gallantry, we shall find it made up of such pitiful Ingredients, which any skilful and rational mind will be ashamed to plead for, much less to mention them in competition with true goodness and unfeigned piety. For how easie is it to observe such who would be accounted the most high and gallant spirits, to quarry on such mean preys which only tend to satisfie their brutish appetites, or flesh revenge with the blood of such who have stood in the way of that aery title, Honour! Or else they are so little apprehensive of the inward worth and excellency of humane nature, that they feem to envy the gallantry of Peacocks, and strive to outvy them in the gaety of their Plumes; such who are, as Seneca saith, ad similitudinem parietum suorum extrinsecus culti, who imitate the walls of their houses in the fairness of the outsides, but matter not what rubbish there lies within. The utmost of their ambition is to attain enervatam felicitatem qua permadescunt animi, such a felicity as evigorates. the foul by too long sleeping, it being the nature of all terrestrial pleasures that they do carrinow is div-

effeminating and softning the Intellectuals. Must we appeal then to the judgment of Sardanapalus concerning the nature of Felicity, or enquire of Apicius what temperance is? or desire that Sybarite to define Magnanimity, who fainted to see a man at hard labour?

Or doth now the conquest of passions, forgiving injuries, doing good, felf-denial, humility, patience under crosses, which are the real expressions of piety, speak nothing more noble and generous than a luxurious, malicious, proud, and impatient spirit? Is there nothing more becoming and agreeable to the soul of man, in exemplary Piety, and a Holy well ordered Conversation, than in the lightness and vanity (not to say rudeness and debaucheries) of those whom the world accounts the greatest gallants? Is there nothing more graceful and pleasing in the sweetness, candour, and ingenuity of a truly Christian temper and disposition, than in the revengeful, implacable spirit of fuch whose Honour lives and is fed by the Blood of their enemies? Is it not more truly honourable and glorious to serve that God who commands the World, than to be a slave to those passions and lusts which put men upon continual hard service, and torment them for it when they have done it? Were there no-

thing

none who heartily believe the Scriptures to be the Word of God, and that the matters revealed therein are infallibly true, will ever have the less estimation of it. It must be confessed that the credit of Religion hath much suffered in the Age we live in through the vain pretences of many to it, who have only acted a part in it for the sake of some private interests of their own. And it is the usual Logick of Atheists, crimine ab uno Disce omnes; if there be any hypocrites, all who make shew of Religion, are fuch, on which account the Hypocrifie of one Age makes way for the Atheism of the next. But how unreasonable and unjust that imputation is, there needs not much to discover, unless it be an argument there are no true men in the World, because there are so many Apes which imitate them; or that there are no Jewels, because there are so many Counterfeits. And bleffed be God, our Age is not barren of instances of real goodness and unaffected piety; there being some such generous spirits as dare love Religion without the dowry of Interest, and manifest their affection to it in the plain dress of the Scriptures, without the paint and set-offs which are added to it by the several contending parties of the Christian World. Were there more such noble spirits of Religion in our Age, Atheism would want one of the greatest Pleas

Pleas which it now makes against the Truth of Religion; for nothing enlarges more the Gulf of Atheism, than that wind passed, that wide passage which lies between the Faith and Lives of men pretending to be Christians. I must needs say there is nothing seems more strange and unaccountable to me, than that the Practice of the unquestionable duties of Christianity should be put out of Countenance, or slighted by any who own, profess, and contend for the Principles of it. Can the profession of that be honourable, whose practice is not? If the principles be true, why are they not practised? If they be not true, why are they professed?

You see, Sir, to what an unexpected length my desire to vindicate the Honour as well as Truth of Religion, hath drawn out this present address. But I may sooner hope for your pardon in it, than if I had spent so much paper after the usual manner of Dedications, in representing You to Your self or the World. Sir, I know You have too much of that I have been commending, to delight in Your own deserved praises, much less in flatteries, which so benign a subject might easily make ones pen run over in. And therein I might not much have digressed from my design, since I know sew more exemplary for that rare mixture of true piety,

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and the highest civility together, in whom that inestimable jewel of Religion is placed in a most sweet, asfable, and obliging temper. But although none will be more ready on any occasion with all gratitude to acknowledge the great obligations. You have laid upon me; yet I am so far sensible of the common vanity of Epistles Dedicatory, that I cannot so heartly comply with them in any thing, as in my hearty prayer to Almighty God for your good and welfare, and in subscribing my self,

Sir,

June 5. 1662.

Your most humble and affectionate servant,

Ed. Stillingfleet.

THE

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PREFACE

TO THE

READER.

T is neither to fatisfie the importunity of friends, nor to prevent false copies (which and fuch like excuses I know are expected in usual Prefaces) that I have adventured abroad this following Treatife: but it is out of a just resentment of the affronts and indignities which have been cast on Religion; by such, who account it a matter of judgment to disbelieve the Scriptures, and a piece of wit to dispute themselves out of the possibility of being happy in another world: When yet the more acute and fubtile their arguments are, the greater their strength is against themselves, it being impossible there should be so much wit and fubtilty in the fouls of men, were they not of a more excellent nature than they imagine them to be. And how contradictious is it for fuch persons to be ambitious of being cried up for wit and reason, whose design is to degrade the rational

The Preface to the Reader.

tional foul fo far below her felf, as to make her become like the beafts that perish! If now the weight and confequence of the fubject, and the too great feafonableness of it (if the common fame of the large spread of Atheism among us be true) be not fufficient Apology for the publishing this Book. I am refolved rather to undergo thy censure, than be beholding to any other. The intendment therefore of this Preface is only to give a brief account of the scope, design, and method of the following Books, although the View of the Contents of the Chapters might fufficiently acquaint thee with it. How far I have been either from transcribing, or a design to excuss out of the hands of their admirers. the several writings on the behalf of Religion in general, or Christianity in particular (especially Morny, Grotius, Amyraldus, &c.) may eafily appear by comparing what is contained in their Books and this together. Had I not thought fomething might be faid, if not more fully and rationally, yet more fuitably to the present temper of this Age than what is already written by them, thou hadst not been troubled with this Preface, much less with the whole Book. But as the tempers and Genius's of Ages and Times alter, so do the arms and weapons which Atheists imploy against Religion; the most popular pretences of the Atheists of our Age, have been the irreconcilableness of the account of Times in Scripture, with that of the learned and ancient Heathen Nations; the inconsistency of the belief of the Scriptures with the principles of reason: and the account which may be given of the Origin of things from principles of Philosophy without the Scriptures: These three therefore I have particularly set my self against.

The Preface to the Reader.

against, and directed against each of them a several Book. In the first I have manifested that there is no ground of credibility in the account of ancient times given by any Heathen Nations different from the Scriptures, which I have with fo much care and diligence enquired into, that from thence we may hope to hear no more of men before Adam to falve the Authority of the Scriptures by, which yet was intended only as a defign to undermine them; but I have not thought the frivolous pretences of the Author of that Hypothesis worth particular mentioning, supposing it sufficient to give a clear account of things without particular citation of Authors, where it was not of great concernment for understanding the thing it self. In the second Book I have undertaken to give a rational account of the grounds. why we are to believe those several persons, who in feveral ages were imployed to reveal the mind of God to the world, and with greater particularity than hath yet been used, I have insisted on the perfons of Moses, and the Prophets, our Saviour and his Apostles, and in every of them manifested the rational evidences on which they were to be believed, not only by the men of their own Age, but by those of succeeding Generations. In the third Book I have infifted on the matters themselves which are either supposed by, or revealed in the Scriptures; and have therein not only manifested the certainty of the foundations of all Religion which lie in the Being of God and Immortality of the foul, but the undoubted truth of those particular accounts concerning the Origin of the Universe, of Evil, and of Nations, which were most liable to the Atheists exceptions, and have therein confidered all the pretences of Philosophy

The Preface to the Reader.

losephy ancient or modern, which have seemed to contradict any of them; to which (mantissa loco) I have added the evidence of Scripture-History in the remainders of it in Heathen Mythology, and concluded all with a discourse of the excellency of the Scriptures. Thus having given a brief view of the design and method of the whole, I submit it to every free and unprejudiced judgment. All the savour then I shall request of thee, is, to read seriously, and judge impartially; and then I doubt not but thou wilt see as much reason for Religion as I do.

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CONTENTS

BOOK I.

CHAP. I.

The obscurity and defect of Ancient History.

HE knowledge of truth proved to be the most natural perfection of the rational soul; yet error often mistaken for truth; the accounts of it. Want of diligence in its search, the mixture of truth and falshood: Thence comes either rejecting truth for the error's fake, or embracing the error for the truth's sake; the first instanced in Heathen Philosophers, the second in vulgar Heathen. Of Philosophical Atheism, and the grounds of it. The History of Antiquity very obscure. The question stated where the true History of ancient times is to be found, in Heathen Histories, or only in Scripture? The want of credibility in Heathen Histories asserted and proved by the general defect for want of timely records among Heathen Nations; the reason of it shewed from the first Plantations of the World. The manner of them discovered. The Original of Civil Government. Of Hieroglyphicks. The use of letters among the Greeks no elder than Cadmus, his time enquired into, no elder than Joshua, the learning brought into Greece by him. page I

CHAP. II.

Of the Phanician and Agyptian History.

The particular defect in the History of the most learned Heathen Nations. First the Phoenicians. Of Sanchoniathon, his Antiquity, and fidelity. Of Jerom-baal, Baal-Berith. The Antiquity of Tyre. Scaliger vindicated against Bochartus Abibalus. The vanity of Phoenician Theology. The imitation of it by the Gnosticks. Of the Agyptian History. The Antiquity and Authority of Hermes Trismegistus. Of his Inscriptions on Pillars, transcribed by Manetho. His Fabulousness thence discovered. Terra Seriadica. Of Seth's Pillars in Josephus, and an account whence they are taken.

pag. 23

CHAP. III.

Of the Chaldean History.

The contest of Antiquity among Heathen Nations, and the ways of deciding it. Of the Chaldean Astrology, and the foundation of Judicial Astrology. Of the Zabii, their Founder, who they were, no other than the old Chaldees. Of Berosus and his History. An account of the fabulous Dynasties of Berosus and Manetho. From the Translation of the Scripture history into Greek in the time of Ptolomy. Of that Translation and the time of it. Of Demetrius Phalereus. Scaliger's arguments answered. Manetho writ after the Septuagint, proved against Kircher; his arguments answered. Of Rabbinical and Arabick Authors, and their little credit in matter of history. The time of Berosus enquired into, his writing co-temporary with Philadelphus.

CHAP. IV.

The defect of the Gracian History.

That manifested by three evident arguments of it. 1. The fabulousness of the Poetical age of Greece. The Antiquity of Poetry Of Orpheus and the ancient Toets. Whence the Poetical Fables borrowed. The advancement of Poetry and Idolatry together in Greece. The different censures of Strabo and Eratosthenes concerning the Poetical age of Greece, and the reasons of them. 2. The eldest Historians of Greece are of suspected credit. Of Damastes, Aristeus, and others; of the most of their eldest Historians we have nothing left but their names, of others only the subjects they treated of, and some fragments. 3. Those that are extant, either confess their ignorance of eldest times, or plainly discover it. Of the first fort are Thucydides and Plutarch; several evidences of the Græcians Ignorance of the true original of Nations. Of Herodotus and his mistakes; the Greeks ignorance in Geography discovered, and thence their insufficiency as to an account of ancient history. pag. 52

CHAP. V.

The general uncertainty of Heathen Chronology.

The want of credibility in Heathen History further proved from the uncertainty and confusion in their accounts of ancient times; that discovered by the uncertain form of their years. An enquiry into the different forms of the Agyptian years, the first of thirty days, the second of four Months; of both Instances given in the Agyptian history. Of the Chaldean accounts, and the first Dynasties mentioned by Berosus, how they may be reduced to probability. Of the Agyptian Lynasties. Of Manetho Reasons of accounting them fabulous, because not attested by any credible authority, and rejected by the best Historians. The opinion of Scaliger and Vossius, concerning their being co-temporary propounded and rejected with

with reasons against it. Of the ancient division of Ægypt into Nomi or Provinces, and the number of them against Vossius and Kircher. pag. 68

CHAP. VI.

The uncertain Epocha's of Heathen Chronology.

An account given of the defect of Chronology in the eldest times. Of the Solar year among the Agyptians, the original of the Epasts, the antiquity of Intercalation among them. Of the several Canicular years; the difference between Scaliger and Petavius considered. The certain Epocha's of the Ægyptian history no elder than Nabonasser. Of the Grecian accounts. The fabulousness of the Heroical age of Greece. Of the ancient Grecian Kingdoms. The beginning of the Olympiads. The uncertain Origins of the Western Nations. Of the Latin Dynasties. The different Palilia of Rome. The uncertain reckoning Ab U.C. Of impostures as to ancient histories. Of Annius, Inghiramus, and others. Of the characters used by Heathen Priests. No sacred characters among the Fews. The partiality and inconsistency of Heathen histories with each other. From all which the want of credibility in them as to an account of ancient times is clearly demonstrated. pag. 82

BOOK II.

CHAP. I.

The certainty of the Writings of Moses.

In order to the proving the truth of Scripture-history, several Hypotheses laid down. The first concerns the reasonableness of preserving the ancient History of the world in some certain Records, from the importance of the things, and the inconveniences of mere tradition or constant Revelation. The se-

cond

cond concerns the certainty that the Records under Moses his name, were undoubtedly his. The certainty of a matter of fast enquired into in general, and proved as to this particular by universal consent, and setling a Common-wealth upon his Laws. The impossibility of an Impossure as to the writings of Moses demonstrated. The pleas to the contrary largely answered.

Pag. 99

CHAP. II.

Moses his certain knowledge of what he writ.

The third Hypothesis concerns the certainty of the matter of Moses his history; that gradually proved: First, Moses his knowledge cleared by his education, and experience, and certain information. His education in the wisdom of Ægypt; what that was. The old Ægyptian learning enquired into, the conveniencies for it. Of the Ægyptian Priests. Moses reckoned among them for his knowledge. The Mathematical, Natural, Divine, and Moral learning of Ægypt: their Political wisdom most considerable. The advantage of Moses above the Greek Philosophers, as to wisdom and reason. Moses himself an eye-witness of most of his history: the certain uninterrupted tradition of the other part among the Jews, manifested by rational evidence.

CHAP. III.

Moses his fidelity and integrity proved.

Moses considered as an Historian, and as a Law-giver; his fidelity in both proved: clear evidences that he had no intent to deceive in his History, freedom from private interest, impartiality in his relations, plainness and perspicuity of stile. As a Law-giver, he came armed with Divine authority, which being the main thing, is fixed on to be fully proved from his actions and writings. The power of miracles the great evidence of Divine revelation. Two grand questions propounded. In what case miracles may be expected and how known to be true. No necessity of a constant power of miracles in a Church:

a Church: Two Cases alone wherein they may be expected. When any thing comes as a Law from God, and when a Divine Law is to be repealed. The necessity of miracles in those cases as an evidence of Divine revelation asserted. Objections answered. No use of miracles when the doctrine is settled and owned by miracles in the first revelation. No need of miracles in reformation of a Church.

CHAP. IV.

The fidelity of the Prophets succeeding Moses.

An order of Prophets to succeed Moses, by God's own appointment in the Law of Moses. The Schools of the Prophets, the original and institution of them. The Cities of the Lewites. The occasion of their first institution. The places of the Schools of the Prophets, and the tendency of the institution there to a Prophetical office. Of the Musick used in the Schools of the Prophets. The Roman Assamenta, and the Greek Hymns in their solemn worship. The two sorts of Prophets among the Jews, Leiger and Extraordinary. Ordinary Prophets taken out of the Schools, proved by Amos and Saul.

CHAP. V.

The tryal of Prophetical Doctrine.

Rules of trying Prophets established in the Law of Moses. The punishment of pretenders. The several sorts of false Prophets. The case of the Prophet at Bethel discussed. The tryal of false Prophets belonging to the great Sanhedrin. The particular rules whereby the Dostrine of Prophets was judged. The proper notion of a Prophet, not foretelling suture contingencies, but having immediate Divine revelation. Several principles laid down for clearing the dostrine of the Prophets.

1. That immediate distates of natural light are not to be the measure of Divine revelation. Several grounds for Divine revelation from natural light.

2. What wer is directly repugnant to the distates of nature, cannot be of Divine revelation.

lation. 3. No Divine revelation doth contradict a Divine positive Law without sufficient evidence of God's intention to repeal that Law 4. Divine revelation in the Prophets was not to be measured by the words of the Law, but by the intention and reason of it. The Prophetical office a kind of Chancery to the Law of Moses.

pag. 154

CHAP. VI.

The tryal of Prophetical Predictions and Miracles.

The great difficulty of the trying the truth of Prophetical predictions from Jerem. 18 7, 8, &c. Some general Hypotheses premised for the clearing of it. The first concerns the ground why predictions are accounted an evidence of Divine revelation. Three Consectaries drawn thence. The second, the manner of God's revelation of his will to the minds of the Prophets. Of the several degrees of Prophecy. The third is, that God did not always reveal the internal purposes of his will unto the true Prophets. The grand question propounded how it may be known when predictions express God's decrees, and when only the series of causes. For the first, several rules laid down. 1. When the prediction is confirmed by a present miracle. 2. when the things foretold exceed the probability of fecond causes. 3. When confirmed by God's oath. 4. When the blessings foretold are purely spiritual. Three rules for interpreting the Prophecies which respect the state of things under the Gospel. 5. When all circumstances are foretold. 6. When many Prophets in several ages agree in the same predictions. Predictions do not express God's unalterable purposes, when they only contain comminations of judgments, or are predictions of temporal blessings. The case of the Ninevites, Hezekiah, and others opened. Of repentance in God, what it implies. The Fewish objections about predictions of temporal bleffings answered. In what cases miracles were expected from the Prophets, when they were to confirm the truth of their religion. Instanced in the Prophet at Bethel, Elijah, Elisha, and of Moses himself; Whose divine authority that it was proved by miracles, is demonstrated against the modern fews, and their pretences answered. pag. 165 CHAP.

CHAP. VII.

The eternity of the Law of Moses discussed.

The second case wherein miracles may be expected, when a Divine positive Law is to be repealed, and another way of wor-(hip established instead of it. The possibility in general of a repeal of a Divine Law afferted: the particular case of the Law of Moses disputed against the fews; the matter of that Law proved not to be immutably obligatory; because the ceremonial precepts were required not for themselves, but for some further end; that proved from Maimonides his confession: the precepts of the Ceremonial Law frequently dispensed with while the Law was in force. Of the Passover of Hezekiah, and several other instances. It is not inconsistent with the wisdom of God to repeal such an established Law. Abravanel's arguments answered. Of the perfection of the Law of Moses, compared with the Gospel. Whether God hath ever declared he would never repeal the Law of Moses. Of adding to the precepts. Of the expressions seeming to imply the perpetuity of the Law of Moses. Reasons assigned why those expressions are used, though perpetuity be not implied. The Law of Moses not built upon immutable reason, because many particular precepts were founded upon particular occasions, as the customs of the Zabii; many ceremonial precepts thence deduced out of Maimonides; and because such a state of things was foretold, with which the observation of the Ceremonial I.aw would be inconsistent. That largely discovered from the Prophecies of the old Testament. pag. 191

CHAP. VIII.

General Hypotheses concerning the Truth of the Doctrine of Christ.

The great prejudice against our Saviour among Fews and Heathens, was the meanness of his appearance. The difference of the miracles at the delivery of the Law and Gospel. Some general Hypotheses to clear the subserviency of miracles to the Dostrine of Christ. 1. That where the truth of a dostrine depends not on evidence, but authority, the only way to prove the truth of the Dostrine, is to prove the Testimony of the revealer to be infallible. Things may be true which depend not on evidence of the things. What that is, and on what it depends. The uncertainty of natural knowledge. The existence of God, the foundation of all certainty. The certainty of matters of faith proved from the same principle. Our knowledge of any thing supposeth something incomprehensible. The certainty of faith as great as that of knowledge; the grounds of it stronger. The consistency of rational evidence with faith. Yet objects of faith exceed reason; the absurdities following the contrary opinion. The uncertainty of that which is called reason. Philosophical dictates no standard of reason. Of transubstantiation and ubiquity, &c. why rejected as contrary to reason. The foundation of faith in matters abovereason. Which is an infallible Testimony; that there are ways to know which is infallible, proved. 2. Hypoth. A Divine Testimony the most infallible. The resolution of faith into God's veracity as its formal object. 3. Hypoth. A Divine Testimony may be known, though God speak not immediately. Of inspiration among the Jews, and Divination among the Heathens. 4. Hypoth. The evidences of a Divine Testimony must be clear and certain. Of the common motives of faith, and the obligation to faith arising from them. The original of Infidelity. p. 211

CHAP. IX.

The rational evidence of the Truth of Christian Religion from Miracles.

The possibility of miracles appears from God and providence; the evidence of a Divine Testimony by them. God alone can really alter the course of nature. The Devil's power of working miracles considered. Of Simon Magus, Apollonius. The cures in the Temple of Æsculapius at Rome, &c. God never works miracles, but for some particular end. The particular reasons of the miracles of Christ. The repealing the Law of Moses, which had been setled by miracles. Why Christ checked the Pharifees for demanding a fign, when himself appeals to his miracles. The power of Christ's miracles on many who did not throughly believe. Christ's miracles made it evident that he was the Messias, because the predictions were fulfilled in him. Why John Baptist wrought no miracles. Christ's miracles necessary for the overthrow of the Devil's Kingdom. Of the Demoniacks and Lunaticks in the Gospel, and in the Primitive Church. The power of the name of Christ over them largely proved by several Testimonies. The evidence thence of a Divine power in Christ. Of counterfeit dispossessions. Of miracles wrought among Infidels. Of the future state of the Church. The necessity of the miracles of Christ, as to the propagation of Christian Religion: that proved from the condition of the publishers, and the success of the Dostrine. The Apostles knew the hazard of their imployment, before they entred on it. The boldness and resolution of the Apostles notwithstanding this, compared with heathen Philosophers. No motive could carry the Apostles through their imployment, but the truth of their Doctrine, not feeking the honour, profit or pleasure of the world. The Apostles evidence of the truth of their doctrine lay in being eye-witnesses of our Saviour's miracles and resurrection. That attested by themselves; their fufficiency thence for preaching the Gospel. Of the nature of the doctrine of the Gospel; contrariety of it to natural inclinations. Strange success of it, notwithstanding it came not with bumane

humane power: No Christian Emperor, till the Gospel universally preached. The weakness and simplicity of the instruments which preached the Gospel. From all which the great evidence of the power of miracles is proved.

pag. 235

CHAP. X.

The difference of true miracles from false.

The unreasonableness of rejecting the evidence from miracles, because of impostures. That there are certain rules of distinguishing true miracles from false, and Divine from diabolical, proved from God's intention in giving a power of miracles, and the providence of God in the world. The inconvenience of taking away the rational grounds of faith and placing it on felfevidence. Of the self-evidence of the Scriptures, and the insufficiency of that for resolving the question about the authority of the Scriptures. Of the pretended miracles of Impostors and falle Christs, as Barchochebas, David el-David, and others. The rules whereby to judge true miracles from false. 1. True Divine miracles are wrought to confirm a Divine testimony. No miracles necessary for the certain conveyance of a Divine Testimony; proved from the evidences that the Scriptures could not be corrupted. 2. No miracles Divine which contradict Divine revelation. Of Popish miracles. 3. Divine miracles leave Divine effects on those who believe them. Of the miracles of Simon Magus. 4. Divine miracles tend to the overthrow of the Devil's power in the world: the antipathy of the doctrine of Christ to the devil's designs in the world. 5. The distinction of true miracles from others, from the circumstances and manner of their operation. The miracles of Christ compared with those of the Heathen Gods. 6. God makes it evident to all impartial judgments that Divine miracles exceed created power. This manifested from the imparallell'd miracles of Moses and our Saviour. From all which the rational evidence of Divine revelation is manifested, as to the persons whom God imploys to teach the world. p. 212

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BOOK III.

CHAP. I

Of the Being of God.

The Principles of all Religion lie in the Being of God and immortality of the soul: from them the necessity of a particular Divine revelation rationally deduced; the method laid down for proving the Divine authority of the Scriptures. Why Moses doth not prove the Being of God, but suppose it. The notion of a Deity very consonant to reason. Of the nature of Idea's. and particularly of the Idea of God. How we can form an Idea of an infinite Being. How far such an Idea argues existence. The great unreasonableness of Atheism demonstrated. Of the Hypotheses of Aristotelian and Epicurean Atheists. The Atheists pretences examined and refuted: Of the nature of the arguments whereby we prove there is a God. Of univerfal consent and the evidence of that to prove a Deity and immortality of souls. Of necessity of existence implied in the notion of God, and how far that proves the Being of God. The order of the world and usefulness of the parts of it, and especially of man's body, an argument of a Deity. Some higher principle proved to be in the world than matter and motion, The nature of the foul, and possibility of its subsisting after death. Strange appearances in nature not solvable by the power of imagination. pag. 337

CHAP. II.

Of the Origin of the Universe.

The necessity of the belief of the creation of the world in order to the truth of Religion. Of the several Hypotheses of the Philosophers who contradict Moses: with a particular examination of them. The ancient tradition of the world consonant to Moses: proved from the Ionick Philosophy of Thales, and

and the Italick of Pythagoras. The Pythagorick Cabalarather Agyptian than Mosaick. Of the fluid matter which was the material principle of the Universe. Of the Hypotheses of the eternity of the world afferted by Ocellus Lucanus, and Aristotle. The weakness of the foundations on which that opinion is built. Of the manner of forming principles of Fhilo-Sophy. The possibility of creation proved. No arguing from the present state of the world against its beginning, shewed from Maimonides. The Platonists arguments from the goodness of God for the eternity of the world answered. Of the Stoical Hypotheses of the eternity of matter; whether reconcilable with the text of Moses. Of the opinions of Plato and Pythagoras concerning the præ-existence of matter to the formation of the world. The contradiction of the eternity of matter to the nature and attributes of God. Of the Atomical Hypothesis of the Origin of the Universe. The World could not be produced by a casual consourse of Atoms proved from the nature and motion of Epicurus his Atoms, and the Phanomena of the Universe, especially the production and nature of Animals. Of the Cartesian Hypothesis, that it cannot salve the Origin of the Universe without a Deity giving motion to matter. pag. 394

CHAP. III.

Of the Origin of Evil.

Of the Being of Providence. Epicurus his arguments against it refuted. The necessity of the belief of Providence in order to Religion. Providence proved from a consideration of the nature of God and the things of the world. Of the Spirit of nature. The great objections against Providence propounded. The first concerns the Origin of evil. God cannot be the author of sin if the Scriptures be true. The account which the Scriptures give of the fall of man, doth not charge God with man's fault. God's power to govern man by Laws, though he gives no particular reason of every Positive precept. The reason of God's creating man with freedom of will, largely shewed from Simplicius; and the true account of the Origin of evil. God's permitting the fall makes him not the author of it. The account

count which the Scriptures give of the Origin of evil, compared with that of Heathen Philosophers. The antiquity of the opinion of ascribing the Origin of evil to an evil principle. Of the judgment of the Persians, Ægyptians and others about it. Of Manichæism. The opinion of the ancient Greek Philosophers; of Pythagoras, Plato, the Stoicks; the Origin of evil not from the necessity of matter. The remainders of the history of the fall among the Heathens. Of the malignity of Dæmons. Providence vindicated as to the sufferings of the good, and impunity of bad men. An account of both from natural light, manifested by Seneca, Plutarch, and others.

CHAP. IV.

Of the Origin of Nations.

All mankind derived from Adam, if the Scriptures be true. The contrary supposition an introduction to Atheism. The truth of the History of the Flood. The possibility of an universal deluge proved. The Flood universal as to mankind, whether universal as to the Earth and Animals; no necessity of asserting either. Yet supposing it, the possibility of it demonstrated without creation of new waters. Of the Fountains of the deep. The proportion which the height of Mountains bears to the Diameter of the Earth. No Mountains much above three mile perpendicular. Of the Origin of Fountains. The opinion of Aristotle and others concerning it discussed. The true account of them from the vapours arising from the mass of subterraneous waters. Of the Capacity of the Ark for receiving the Animals, from Buteo and others. The truth of the deluge from the Testimony of Heathen Nations. Of the propagation of Nations from Noah's posterity. Of the beginning of the Assyrian Empire. The multiplication of mankind after the Flood. Of the Chronology of the LXX. Of the time between the Flood and Abraham, and the advantages of it. Of the pretence of such Nations, who called themselves Aborigines. Adiscourse concerning the first Plantation of Greece, the common opinion propounded and rejected. The Hellens not the first Inhabitants of Greece, but the Pelasgi. The large spread of them over the parts of Greece; Of their language different from

from the Greeks. Whence these Pelasgi came; that Phaleg was the Pelasgus of Greece, and the leader of that Colony, proved from Epiphanius: the language of the Pelasgi in Greece Oriental: thence an account given of the many Hebrew words in the Greek language, and the remainders of the Eastern languages in the Islands of Greece, both which not from the Phænicians as Bochartus thinks, but from the old Pelasgi. Of the ground of the affinity between the Jews and Lacedæmonians. Of the peopling of America.

CHAP. V.

Of the Origin of the Heathen Mythology.

That there were some remainders of the ancient history of the World preserved in the several Nations after the dispersion. How it came to be corrupted: by decay of knowledge, increase of Idolatry, confusion of languages. An enquiry into the cause of that. Difficulties against the common opinion that languages were confounded at Babel. Those difficulties cleared. Of the fabulousness of Poets. The particular ways whereby the Heathen Mythology arose. Attributing the general history of the World to their own Nation. The corruption of Hebraisms. Alteration of names. Ambiguity of sence in the Oriental languages. Attributing the actions of many to one person, as in Jupiter, Bacchus, &c. The remainders of Scripture-history among the Heathens. The names of God, Chaos, formation of man among the Phænicians. Of Adam among the Germans, Ægyptians, Cilicians. Adam under Saturn. Cain among the Phænicians. Tubal-Cain and Jubal under Vulcan and Apollo. Naamah under Minerva. Noah under Saturn, Janus, Prometheus and Bacchus. Noah's three sons under Jupiter, Neptune, and Pluto. Canaan under Mercury, Nimrod under Bacchus, Magog under Prometheus. Of Abraham and Isaac among the Phænicians. Jacob's service under Apollo's. The Baininia from Bethel. Joseph under Apis. Moses under Bacchus. Joshua under Hercules. Balaam under the old Silenus. pag. 538.

CHAP. VI.

Of the Excellency of the Scriptures.

Concerning matters of pure divine revelation in Scripture: the terms of Salvation only contained therein. The ground of the disesteem of the Scriptures is tacite unbelief. The Excellency of the Scriptures manifested as to the matters which God bath revealed therein. The Excellency of the discoveries of God's nature which are in Scripture. Of the goodneß and love of God in Christ. The suitableneß of those discoveries of God to our natural notions of a Deity. The necessity of God's making known himself to us in order to the regulating our conceptions of him. The Scriptures give the fullest account of the state of men's souls, and the corruptions which are in them. The only way of pleasing God discovered in Scriptures. The Scriptures contain matters of greatest mysteriousness, and most universal satisfaction to men's minds. The Excellency of the manner wherein things are revealed in Scriptures, in regard of clearness, authority, purity, uniformity, and persuasiveness. The Excellency of the Scriptures as a rule of life. The nature of the duties of Religion and the reasonableness of them. The greatness of the encouragements to Religion contained in the Scriptures. The great Excellency of the Scriptures, as containing in them the Covenant of Grace in order to man's Salvation.

ORIGINES

ORIGINES SACRÆ:

The Truth of

SCRIPTURE-HISTORY Afferted.

BOOK I.

CHAP. I.

The obscurity and defect of Ancient History.

The knowledge of truth proved to be the most natural perfection of the rational soul; yet error often mistaken for truth, the accounts of it. Want of diligence in its search, the mixture of truth and fallhood: Thence comes either rejecting truth for the error's sake, or embracing the error for the truth's sake; the first instanced in Heathen Philosophers, the second in vulgar Heathen. Of Philosophical Atheism, and the grounds of it. The History of Antiquity very obscure. The question stated where the true History of ancient times to be found, in Heathen Histories, or only in Scripture? The want of credibility in Heathen Histories asserted and proved by the general defect for want of timely records among Heathen Nations; the reason of it shewed from the first Plantations of the World. manner of them discovered. The Original of Civil Government. Of Hieroglyphicks. The use of letters among the Greeks no elder than Cadmus, his time enquired into, no elder than Joshua, the learning brought into Greece by him.

Nquiries after truth have that peculiar commendation Sect. 1.

above all other designs, that they come on purpose to gratiste the most noble faculty of our souls, and do most immediately tend to re-advance the highest perfection of our rational beings. For all our most laudable endeavours after knowledge now, are only the gathering up some scattered fragments of what was once an entire Fabrick, and the recovery of some precious sewels which

were lost out of fight, and sunk in the shipwrack of humane nature. That faying of Plato, that all knowledge is remembrance. and all ignorance forgetfulness, is a certain and undoubted truth. if by forgetfulness be meant the loss, and by remembrance the recovery of those notions and conceptions of things which the mind of man once had in its pure and primitive state, wherein the understanding was the truest Microcosm, in which all the beings of the inferiour world were faithfully represented according to their true, native, and genuine perfections. God created the foul of man not only capable of finding out the truth of things, but furnished him with a sufficient neither or touchstone to discover truth from falshood, by a light set up in his understanding, which if he had attended to, he might have fecured himself from all impostures and deceits. As all other beings were created in the full possession of the agreeable perfections of their several natures, so was man too, else God would have never closed the work of Creation with those words, And God faw all that he had made, and behold it was very good: that is, endued with all those perfections which were suitable to their several beings. Which man had been most defective in, if his understanding had not been endowed with a large stock of intellectual knowledge, which is the most natural and genuine perfection belonging to his rational being. For reason being the most raised faculty of humane nature, if that had been defective in its discoveries of truth, which is its proper object, it would have argued the greatest main and imperfection in the being it self. For if it belongs to the perfection of the sensitive faculties to discern what is pleasant from what is burtfull, it must needs be the perfection of the rational to find out the difference of truth from fallhood. Not as though the foul could then have had any more than now, an actual notion of all the beings in the world co-existing at the same time, but that it would have been free from all deceits in its

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Sect. 2.

Gen. 1. 31.

conceptions of things, which were not caused through inadvertency.

Which will appear from the several aspects man's know-ledge hath, which are either upwards towards his Maker, or abroad on his fellow-creatures. If we consider that contemplation of the soul which fixes it self on that Instinite being which was the cause of it, and is properly swela; it will be found necessary

necessary for the soul to be created in a clear and distinct knowledge of him, because of man's immediate obligation to obedience unto him. Which must necessarily suppose the knowledge of him, whose will must be his rule; for if man were not fully convinced in the first moment after his creation of the being of him, whom he was to obey, his first work and duty would not have been actual obedience, but a fearch whether there was any supream, infinite, and eternal being or no; and whereon his duty to him was founded, and what might be fufficient declaration of his Will and Laws, according to which he must regulate his chedience. The taking off all which doubts and scruples from the soul of man, must suppose him fully satisfied upon the first free use of reason, that there was an Infinite Power and Being which produced him, and on that account had a right to command him in whatfoever he pleased, and that those commands of his were declared to him in so certain a way, that he could not be deceived in the judging of them. The clear knowledge of God will further appear most necessary to man in his first creation, if we consider that God created him for this end and purpose, to enjoy converse, and an humble familiarity with himself; he had then έμφυτον προς τ έρανον κοινωνίαν in the language of Clemens Alexandrinus, Converse with God Protrept. p. 63. was as natural to him as his being was. For man, as he came first out of God's hands, was the reflection of God himself on a dark Cloud, the Iris of the Deity, the similitude was the same, but the substance different: Thence he is said to be created after the Image of God. His knowledge then had been more Gen. 1. 26. intellectual than discursive; not so much imploying his faculties in the operage deductions of reason (the pleasant toyl of the rational faculties fince the Fall) but had immediately imployed them about the sublimest objects, not about quiddities and formalities, but about him who was the fountain of his being, and the center of his happiness. There was not then so vast a difference between the Angelical and humane life: The Angels and men both fed on the same dainties; all the difference was, they were in the sage wor, the upper room in heaven, and man in the Summer Parlour in Paradife.

If we take a view of man's knowledge as it respects his fellow-creatures, we shall find these were so fully known to him on his first creation, that he needed not to go to School to the wide B 2 world

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world to gather up his conceptions of them. For the right exercise of that Dominion which he was instated in over the inferiour world, doth imply a particular knowledge of the nature, being, and properties of those things which he was to make use of, without which he could not have improved them for their peculiar ends. And from this knowledge did proceed the giving the creatures those proper and peculiar names which were expressive of their several natures. For as Plato tells us, ε πάντα δημικερον ονομάτων εί), άλλα μόνον εκείνον τ άπο-In Cratylo. ελέπον a els το τη φύσει ονομα ον έκας : The imposition of names on things belongs not to every one, but only to him that hath a full prospect into their several natures. For it is most agreeable to reason, that names should carry in them a suitableness to the things they express; for words being for no other end but to express our conceptions of things, and our conceptions being but εκόνες κι δρωτώματα σεαγμάτων, as the same Philosopher speaks, the resemblances and representations of the things, it must need follow, that where there was a true knowledge, the conceptions must agree with the things; and words being to express our conceptions, none are so fit to do it, as those which are expressive of the several natures of the things they are used to represent. For otherwise all the use of words is to be a meer vocabulary to the understanding, and an Index to memory, and of no further use in the pursuit of knowledge, than to let us know what words men are agreed to call things by. But fomething further feems to be intended in their first im-In Gen. 2. 19. position, whence the Jews call it הברלת המינים as Mercer tells us, a separation and distinction of the several kinds of things: Oedip. Egypt. and Kircher thus paraphrased the words of Moses. And what-Tom. 2. Class. 2. Soever Adam called every living creature, that was the name thereof, i. e. faith he, Fuerunt illis vera & germana nomina & rerum naturis propriè accommodata. But however this be, we have this further evidence of that height of knowledge which must be supposed in the first man, that as he was the first in his kind, so he was to be the standard and measure of all that followed, and therefore could not want any thing of the due perfections of humane nature. And as the shekel of the Sanctuary was, if not double to others, (as men ordinarily mistake) vet of a full and exact weight, because it was to be the standard for all other weights (which was the cause of its being

cap. I.

kept in the Temple.) So if the first man had not double the proportion and measure of knowledge which his posterity hath, if it was not running over in regard of abundance, yet it must be pressed down and shaken together in regard of weight, else he would be a very unfit standard for us to judge by, concerning

the due and suitable perfections of humane nature.

But we need not have run fo far back as the first man to SeEt. 4. evince the knowledge of truth to be the most natural perfection of the foul of man; for even among the present ruines of humane nature we may find some such noble and generous spirits, that discern so much beauty in the face of truth, that to such as should enquire what they find so attractive in it, their anfwer would be the same with Aristotle's in a like case, it was πυφλε έςωπμα, the Question of those who never sam it. For so pleasing is the enquiry, and so satisfactory the finding of truth after the fearch, that the relish of it doth far exceed the greatest Epicurism of Apicius, or the most costly entertainments of Cleopatra; there being no Gust so exquisite as that of the mind, nor any Fewels to be compared with Truth. Nor do any perfons certainly better deserve the name of men, than such who allow their reason a full employment, and think not the erectnels of man's stature a sufficient distinction of him from Brutes. Of which those may be accounted only a higher species who can patiently fuffer the imprisonment of their intellectuals in a Dungeon of Ignorance, and know themselves to be men, only by those Characters by which Alexander knew himself not to be a God, by their proneness to intemperance and sleep. So strange a Metempsychosis may there be without any change of bodies, and Euphorbus his foul might become a Brute, without ever removing its lodging into the body of an Ass. So much will the foul degenerate from it felf, if not improved, and in a kind of fullenness scarce appear to be what it is, because it is not improv d to what it may be.

But if this knowledge of truth be so great, so natural, so valu- Sect. s. able a perfection of humane nature, whence comes so much of the Object. world to be over-run with Ignorance and Barbarism, whence come so many pretenders to knowledge, to court a cloud instead of Juno, to pretend a Love to truth, and yet to fall down and worship error? If there were so great a sympathy between the soul and truth, there would be an impatient desire after it, and a most ready embracing

bracing and closing with it. We see the Magnet doth not draw the Iron with greater force than it seems to run with impatience into its closest embraces. If there had been formerly so intimate an acquaintance between the soul and truth, as Socrates fansied of friends in the other world, there would be an harmonious closure upon the first appearance, and no divorce to be after made between them?

Answ.

True, but then we must consider there is an intermediate state between the former acquaintance, and the renewal of it. wherein all those remaining characters of mutual knowledge are funk so deep, and lie so hid, that there needs a new fire to be kindled to bring forth those latent figures, and make them again appear legible. And when once those tokens are produced of the former friendship, there are not more impatient longings, nor more close embraces between the touched needle and the Magnet, than there are between the understanding and discovered truth. But then withall, we are to consider that they are but few whose souls are awakened out of that Lethargy they are fallen into in this degenerate condition, the most are so pleased with their seep, that they are loth to disturb their rest. and fet a higher price upon a lazy Ignorance, than upon a restless Knowledge. And even of those whose souls are as it were between fleeping and making, what by reason of the remaining confusion of the species in their brains, what by the present dimness of their sight, and the hovering uncertain light they are to judge by, there are few that can put a difference between a meer phantasm and a real truth. Of which these rational accounts may be given, viz. Why so few pretenders to knowledge do light on truth.

Sect. 6.

First, Want of an impartial diligence in the search of it. Truth now must be sought, and that with care and diligence, before we find it; Jewels do not use to lie upon the surface of the earth: High-ways are seldom paved with Gold; what is most worth our Finding, calls for the greatest search. If one that walks the streets should sind some inestimable Jewel, or one that travels the road meet with a bag of gold, it would be but a silly design of any to walk the street, or travel the road in hopes to meet with such a purchase to make them rich. If some have happily light on some valuable truths when they minded nothing less than them, must this render a diligence useless in

inquiries

inquiries after fuch? No: Truth, though she be so fair and pleasing as to draw our affections, is yet so modest as to admit of being courted, and, it may be, deny the first suit, to heighten our importunity. And certainly nothing hath oftner forbid the banes between the Understanding and Truth inquired after, than partiality and pre-occupation of Judgment: which makes men enquire more diligently after the dowry than the beauty of Truth, its correspondency to their Interests, than its evidence to their understandings. An useful error hath often kept the Keys of the mind for free admission, when important truths but contrary to their pre-conceptions or interests have been forbidden entrance. Prejudice is the wrong biass of the foul, that effectually keeps it from coming near the mark of truth; nay, fets it at the greatest distance from it. There are few in the world that look after truth with their own eyes, most make use of spe-Etacles of others making, which makes them so seldom behold the proper lineaments in the face of Truth; which the feveral tinstures from education, authority, custom and pre-disposition do

exceedingly hinder men from discerning of.

Another reason why there are so few who find Truth, when Sect. 77. fo many pretend to feek it, is, That near resemblance which Error often bears to Truth. It hath been well observed, that Error feldom walks abroad the world in her own raiments; she always borrows something of Truth, to make her more acceptable to the world. It hath been always the subtilty of grand deceivers to graft their greatest errors on some material truths, to make them pass more undiscernable to all such who look more at the root on which they stand, than on the fruits which they bring forth. It will hereafter appear how most of the grossest of the Heathen errors have, as Plutarch faith of the Agyptian fables, apudous tivas emodous & annoeias, some faint and obscure resemblances of truth; nay more than so, as most pernicious weeds are bred in the fattest soils, their most destructive principles have been founded on some necessary and important truths. Thus Idolatry doth suppose the belief of the existence of a Deity; and Superstition the immortality of the souls of The Devil could never have built his Chapels, but on the same ground whereon God's Temples stood; which makes me far less wonder than many do, at the meeting with many expressions concerning these two grand truths in the writings

of ancient Heathens, knowing how willing the Devil might be to have such principles still owned in the world, which by his depraving of them might be the nourishers of Idolatry and Superstition. For the general knowledge of a Divine nature, supposing men ignorant of the true God, did only lay a foundation to erect his idolatrous Temples upon; and the belief of the soul's surviving the body after death, without knowledge of the true way of attaining happiness, did make men more eager of embracing those Rites and Ceremonies, which came with a pretence of shewing the way to a blessed immortality.

Sect. 8.

Which may be a most probable reason why Philosophy and Idolatry did increase so much together as they did; for though right reason fully improved, would have overthrown all those curfed and idolatrous practices among the Heathens; yet reason only differning some general notions without their particular application and improvement, did only dispose the most ordinary fort of people to a more ready entertainment of the most gross Idolatry. For hereby they discerned the necessity of some kind of worship, but could not find out the right way of it, and therefore they greedily followed that which was commended to them, by such who did withall agree with them in the common fentiments of humane nature: Nay, and those persons themselves who were the great maintainers of these sublimer notions concerning God and the foul of man, were either the great Instruments of advancing that horrid superstition among them, as Orpheus and Apollonius, or very forward Complyers with it, as many of the Philosophers were. Although withall it cannot be denied to have been a wonderfull discovery of Divine providence, by these general notions to keep waking the inward fenses of mens souls, that thereby it might appear when Divine revelation should be manifested to them, that it brought nothing contrary to the common principles of humane nature, but did only restifie the depravations of it, and clearly shew men that way which they had long been ignorantly feeking af-Which was the excellent advantage the Apostle made of the Inscription on the Altar at Athens to the unknown God; Whom, faith he, ye ignorantly serve, him I declare unto you. And which was the happy use the Primitive learned Christians made of all those passages concerning the divine nature, and the Immortality of the fouls of men, which they found in the Heathen

Act. 17. 23.

then writers, thereby to evidence to the world that the main postulata or suppositions of Christian Religion were granted by their own most admired men: and that Christianity did not rase out, but only build upon those common foundations, which were entertained by all who had any name for reason.

Though this, I say, were the happy effect of this building Sect. 9. errours on common truths to all that had the advantage of Divine Revelation to discern the one from the other; yet as to others who were destitute of it, they were liable to this twofold great inconvenience by it. First, for the sake of the apparent rottenness of the Superstructures, to question the soundness of the foundations on which they stood. And this I doubt not was the case of many considerative heathens, who observing that monstrow and unreasonable way of worship obtaining among the heathen, and not being able by the frength of their own reason, through the want of divine revelation, to deduce any certain instituted worship, they were shrewdly tempted to renounce those principles, when they could not but abhor the conclusions drawn from them; for there is nothing more usual than for men who exceedingly detest some absurd consequence they see may be drawn from a principle supposed, to reject the principle it felf for the sake of that consequence, which it may be doth not necessarily follow from it, but through the shortness of their own reason doth appear to them to do so. Thus when the intelligent heathen did apparently fee that from the principles of the Being of God, and the Immortality of fouls, did flow all those unnatural and inhumane Sacrifices, all those absurd and ridiculous Rites, all those execrable and profane Mysteries, out of a loathing the immoralities and impieties which attended these, they were brought to question the very truth and certainty of those principles which were capable of being thus abused.

And therefore I am very prone to suspect the Apology usual- Sect. 10. ly made for Protagoras, Diagoras, and fuch others of them who were accounted Atheists, to be more favourable than true, viz. that they only rejected those heathen Deities, and not the belief of the Divine nature. I should think this account of their reputed Atheism rational, were it any ways evident that they did build their belief of a Divine nature, upon any other grounds than fuch as were common to them with those whose worship they fo much derided. And therefore when the Heathens accused

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the Christians of Atheism, I have full and clear evidence that no more could be meant thereby than the rejection of their way of worship, because I have sufficient Assurance from them that they did believe in a Divine nature, and an instituted Religion most suitable to the most common received notions of God, which they owned in opposition to all heathen worship. Which I find not in the least pretended to by any of the forementioned persons, nor any thing of any different way of Religion afferted, but only a destruction of that in use among them.

And although the case of Anaxagoras Clazomenius, and the

rest of the Jonick Philosophers, might seem very different from

Sect. 11.

Diagoras, Theodorus, and those beforementioned, because although they denied the gods in vulgar repute to be fuch as they were thought to be (as Anaxagoras call'd the Sun wifes Siamuegy, a mere globe of fire, for which he was condemned at Athens to banishment, and fined five talents; yet the learned De Idololat.c.1. Vossius puts in this Plea in his behalf, That he was one that afferted the creation of the world to flow from an eternal mind:) although therefore, I fay, the cafe of the Ionick Philosophers may feem far different from the others, because of their afferting the production of the world (which from Thales Milesius was conveyed by Anaximander and Anaximenes to Anaxagoras) yet to one that throughly considers what they understood by their eternal mind, they may be sooner cleared from the imputation of Atheism, than Irreligion. Which two certainly ought in this case to be distinguished; for it is very possible for men, meeting with fuch insuperable difficulties about the casual concourse of Atoms for the production of the world, or the eternal existence of matter, to assert some eternal mind, as the first cause of these things, which yet they may imbrace only as an hypothesis in Philosophy to solve the phanomena of nature with, but yet not to make this eternal mind the object of adoration. And fo their afferting a Deity was only on the same account as the Tragedians used to bring in their Deds end ungarns, when their Fables were brought to fuch an iffue, and perplexed with so many difficulties that they faw no way to clear them again, but to make some God come down upon the Stage to solve the difficulties they were engaged in; or, as Seneca faith of many great Families when they had run up their Genealogies so high that they could go no further, they then fetched their pedegree

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from the Gods: So when these Philosophers saw such incongruities in asserting an infinite and eternal series of matter, they might by this be brought to acknowledge some active principle which produced the world, though they were far enough from

giving any religious worship to that eternal mind.

Thus even Epicurus and his Followers would not stick to as- Sect. 12. fert the being of a God, so they might but circumscribe him within the heavens, and let him have nothing to do with things that were done on earth. And how uncertain the most dogmatical of them all were, as to their opinions concerning the being and nature of their gods, doth fully appear from the large discourses of Tully upon that subject: where is fully manifested their variety of opinions and mutual repugnancies, their self-contradictions and inconstancy in their own assertions; which hath made me somewhat inclinable to think that the reason why many of them did to the world own a Deity, was, That they might not be Martyrs for Atheism: Which Tully likewise De nat Deor. feems to acknowledge, when speaking of the punishment of Pro- 1. 1. c. 63. tagoras, for that Speech of his; De diis neque ut sint, neque ut non fint, habeo dicere. Ex quo equidem existimo tardiores ad hanc sententiam profitendam multos esse factos, quippe cum panam ne dubitatio quidem effugere potuisset. So that for all the verbal afferting of a Deity among them, we have no certain evidence of their firm belief of it, and much less of any worship and service they owed unto it. And though, it may be, could not . totally excuss the notions of a Deity out of their minds, partly through that natural sense which is engraven on the souls of men; partly, as being unable to solve the difficulties of nature, without a Deity; yet the observing the notorious vanities of Heathen worship, might make them look upon it as a mere Philosophical speculation, and not any thing that had an influence upon the government of mens lives: For, as in nature, the obferving the great mixture of fallhood and truth made the Academicks deny any certain neutheror, or rule of judging truth; and the Scepticks take away all certain affent; so the same confequence was unavoidable here, upon the same principle; and that made even Plato himself so ambiguous and uncertain in his discourses of a Deity, sometimes making him an eternal mind, fometimes afferting the whole World, Sun, Moon, Stars, Earth, Souls and all, to be Gods, and even those that were worshipped

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among the heathens, as Tully tells us out of his Timams and de Legibus; which as Velleius the Epicurean there speaks, Et per fe sunt falsa & sibi invicem repugnantia. This is the first inconvenience following the mixture of truth and fallhood, for the fake of the falshood to question the truth it self it was joyned with.

Sect. 13.

The other is as great which follows, when truth and fallhood are mixed, for the sake of the truth to embrace the fallhood. Which is a mistake as common as the other; because men are apt to think that things fo vallly different as truth and fallbood, could never blend, or be incorporate together; therefore when they are certain they have fome truth, they conclude no falfbood to be joyned with it. And this I suppose to have been the case of the more credulous and vulgar Heathen, as the other was of the Philosophers; for they, finding mankind to agree in this, not only that there is a God, but that he must be worshipp'd. did without scruple make use of the way of worship among them, as knowing there must be some, and they were ignorant of any else. And from hence they grew to be as confident believers of all those fables and traditions on which their idolatry was founded, as of those first principles and notions from which the necessity of divine worship did arise. And being thus habituated to the belief of these things, when truth it self was divulged among them, they suspected it to be only a corruption of some of their fables. This Celsus the Epicurean on all occasions in his books against the Christians, did fly to. Thus he faith the building of the Tower of Babel, and the confusion of Tongues, was taken from the fable of the Aloadæ in Homer's Apud Orig. c. Odysses; the story of the Floud, from Deucalion; Paradise. Celf. 1.4. P.174, from Alcinous his Gardens, the burning of Sodom and Gomorrah, from the story of Phaeton. Which Origen well refutes. from the far greater antiquity of those relations among the Tews, than any among the Greeks: and therefore the corruption of the tradition was in them, and not the Fews. Which must be our only way for finding out which was the original, and which the corruption, by demonstrating the undoubted antiquity of one beyond the other, whereby we must do as Archimedes did by the Crown of Hiero, find out the exact proportions of

179.

truth and falshood which lay in all those heathen fables. And this now leads to the third account, Why truth is fo Sect. 14. hardly discerned from errour, even by those who search after it,

which

which is the great obscurity of the History of Ancient Times. which should decide the Controversie. For there being an univerfal agreement in some common principles, and a frequent resemblance in particular traditions, we must of necessity, for the clearing the truth from its corruption, have recourse to ancient history, to see if thereby we can find out where the Original tradition was best preserved, by what means it came to be corrupted, and whereby we may distinguish those corruptions from the Truths to which they are annexed: Which is the design and subject of our future discourse, viz. to demonstrate that there was a certain original and general tradition preserved in the world concerning the eldest Ages of the world; that this tradition was gradually corrupted among the Heathens; that notwithstanding this corruption there were sufficient remainders of it to evidence its true original; that the full account of this tradition is alone preserved in those books we call the Scriptures: That where any other history seems to cross the report contained in them, we have sufficient ground to question their credibility; and that there is sufficient evidence to clear the undoubted certainty of that history which is contained in the Sacred Records of Scripture. Wherein we shall observe the same method which Thales took in taking the height of the Pyramids, by measuring the length of their shadow; so shall we the height and antiquity of truth from the extent of the fabulous corruptions of it. Which will be a work of so much the greater difficulty, because the truth we pursue after takes covert in so great antiquity, and we must be forced to follow its most flying footsteps through the dark and shady paths of ancient history. For though history be frequently called the Light of Truth, and the Herald of Times, yet that light is so faint and dim, especially in Heathen Nations, as not to serve to discover the face of Truth from her counterfeit, Errour, and that Herald so little skill'd, as not to be able to tell us which is of the Elder house. The reason is, though Truth be always of greater Antiquity, yet Errour may have the more wrinkled face, by which it often imposeth on such who guess antiquity by deformity, and think nothing so old as that which can give the least account of its own age. This is evidently the case of those who make the pretence of ancient history a plea for Insidelity, and think no argument more plausible to impugn the certainty of Divine Revelation with, than the

the seeming repugnancy of some pretended histories with the account of ancient time reported in the Bible. Which being a pretext so unworthy, and designed for so ill an end, and so frequently made use of, by such who account Insidelity a piece of antiquity as well as reason, it may be worth our while to shew, That it is no more liable to be bassled with reason, than to be confuted by antiquity.

Sect. 15.

Sect. 16.

In order therefore to the removing of this stumbling-block in our way, I shall first evince, that there is no certain credibility in any of those ancient histories which seem to contradict the Scriptures, nor any ground of reason why we should assent to them. when they differ from the Bible: and then prove, that all those undoubted characters of a most certain and authentick history are legible in those records contained in Scripture. Whereby we shall not only shew the unreasonableness of insidelity, but the rational evidence which our faith doth stand on as to these things. I shall demonstrate the first of these, viz. that there is no ground of assent to any ancient histories which give an account of things different from the Scriptures, from these arguments; The apparent defect, weakness and insufficiency of them as to the giving an account of elder times; The monstrous confusion, ambiguity and uncertainty of them in the account which they give; The evident partiality of them to themselves, and inconsistency with each other. I begin with the first of these, the defect and insufficiency of them to give in such an account of elder times as may amount to certain credibility; which, if cleared, will of it felf be fufficient to manifest the incompetency of those records, as to the laying any foundation for any firm affent to be given to them. Now this deject and insufficiency of those histories is either more general, which lies in common to them all, or fuch as may be observed in a particular consideration of the histories of those several Nations which have pretended highest to antiquity.

The general deferies, the want of timely records to preferve their histories in. For it is most evident, that the truest history in the world is liable to various corruptions through length of time, if there be no certain way of preserving it entire. And that, through the frailty of memory in those who had integrity to preserve it, through the gradual increase of barbarism and ignorance, where there are no ways of instruction, and through

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the subtilty of such whose interest it may be to corrupt and alter that tradition. If we find such infinite variety and difference of men, as to the histories of their own times, when they have all possible means to be acquainted with the truth of them; what account can we imagine can be given by those who had no certain way of preserving to posterity the most authentick relation of former Ages? Especially, it being most evident, that where any certain way of preserving tradition is wanting, a People must soon degenerate into the greatest stupidity and barbarism, because all will be taken up in minding their own petty concerns, and no encouragement at all given to such publick spirits, who would mind the credit of the whole Nation. For what was there for fuch to employ themselves upon, or spend their time in, when they had no other kind of learning among them, but some general traditions conveyed from father to son, which might be learned by such who followed nothing but domestick employments? So that the sons of Noah, after their several dispersions and plantations of several Countries, did gradually degenerate into ignorance and barbarism: for, upon their first setling in any Countrey, they found it employment fufficient to cultivate the Land, and fit themselves habitations to live in, and to provide themselves of necessities for their mutual comfort and subsistence. Besides this, they were often put to removes from one place to another, where they could not conveniently reside (which Thucydides speaks much of as to the ancient state of Greece) and it was a great while before they came to imbody themselves together in Towns and Cities, and from thence to spread into Provinces, and to settle the bounds and extents of their Territories. The first age, after the plantation of a Countrey being thus spent, the next saw it necesfary to fall close to the work of husbandry, not only to get something out of the earth for their subsistence; but when by their diligence they had so far improved the ground, that they had not only enough for themselves, but to spare to others, they then found out a way for commerce one with another by exchange. This way of traffick made them begin to raise their hopes higher, of enriching themselves; which when some of them had done, they bring the poorer under their power, and reign as Lords over them; these rich, with their dependants, strive to outure each other, whence came wars and mutual contentions. tontentions, till they who got the better over their adversaries, took still greater authority into their hands (thence at first every City almost, and adjacent Territory, had a King over it) which by conflicting with each other, at last brought several Cities and Territories under the power of one particular perfon, who thereby came to reign as sole Monarch over all within his dominions.

Selt. 17.

For although there be some reason to think that the Leaders of feveral Colonies had at first superiority over all that went with them; yet there being evidence in few Nations of any continued succession of Monarchs from the posterity of Noah, and so great evidence of so many petty royalties almost in every City (as we read of such multitudes of King's in the small territory of Canaan, when Johna conquered it,) this makes it at least probable to me, that after the death of the first Leader, by reason of their poverty and dispersedness of habitations, they did not incorporate generally into any Civil government under one head, but did rife by degrees in the manner before fet down; but yet so, that in the petty divisions some prerogative might be given to him who derived his pedigree the nearest from the first Founder of that plantation; which in all probability is the meaning of Thucydides, who tells us when the riches of Greece began to increase, and their power improved, Tyrannies were erected in most Cities (restreet) hour om ontils repent mareuni Banksia, for before that time Kingdoms with honours limited were hereditary) for so the Scholiast explains it, mareinal Baonλείαι από τη πατέρων παραλαμβανόμενοι κατά διαδοχήν γένες. then being the state and case of most Nations in the first ages after their plantation, there was no likelihood at all of any great improvement in knowledge among them; nay so far from it, that for the first ages, wherein they conflicted with poverty and necessity, there was a necessary decay among them, of what knowledge had been conveyed to them; because their necessities kept them in continual employment; and after that they conquered them, they began to conquer each other, that 'till fuch time as they were settled in peace under established Common-wealths, there was no leifure, nor opportunity for any Arts and Sciences to flourish, without which all certain histories of their own former state must vanish and dwindle into some fabulous stories. And so we find they did in most Nations, which thence are able

Lib.1. hist. p. 10. Ed. Port.

able to give no other account of themselves, but that they sprung out of the earth where they lived; from which opinion the Athenians used to wear of old their golden grashoppers, as Thucydides relates. What account can we then expect of ancient times from fuch Nations which were so defective in preserving

their own Originals?

Now this defectiveness of giving testimony of ancient times by these Nations, will further appear by these two considerations: First, what ways there are for communicating knowledge to posterity. Secondly, How long it was ere these Nations came to be Masters of any way of certain communicating their conceptions to their Successors. Three general ways there are whereby knowledge may be propagated from one to another; by representative symbols, by speech, and by letters. The first of these was most common in those elder times, for which purpose Clemens Alexandrinus produceth the testimony of an ancient Grammarian, Dionysius Thrax in his Exposition of the symbol of the wheels: εσήμαινου γεν ε δια λέξεως μόνον, αλλα κή δια σιμοόλων ένιοι Strom. 1. 5 rais mediens: That some persons made a representation of their actions to others, not only by speech, but by symbols too. Which any one who is any ways conversant in the Learning of those ancient times, will find to have been the chief way of propagating it (such as it was) from one to another, as is evident in the Hieroglyphicks of the Egyptians, and the custom of symbols from thence derived among the Grecian Philosophers, especially the Pythagoreans. It was the folemn custom of the Ægyptians to wrap up all the little knowledge they had under fuch mystical representations, which were unavoidably clogged with two inconveniences very unsuitable to the propagation of knowledge, which were obscurity and ambiguity: for it not only cost them a great deal of time to gather up such symbolical things which might represent their conceptions; but when they had pitched upon them, they were liable to a great variety of interpretations, as is evident in all those remainders of them, preserved by the Industry of some ancient Writers, as in their xwuxorai, or golden Images of their Gods, they had ingraved two dogs, an hawk, and an Ibis. By the dogs some understood the two Hemispheres, others the two Tropicks; by the hawk fome understood the Sun, others the Equinoctial; by the 1bis some the Moon, others the Zodiack, as is evident in Clemens,

Sect. 18.

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who reports it. This way then is a most unfit way to convey any ancient tradition, by being both obscure, ambiguous, and unable to express so much as to give any certain light to future ages of the passages of the precedent.

Sect. 19.

The other ways of conveying knowledge, are either by speech. or by letters. The first must be by some vocal Cabala delivered down from Father to Son: but words being of so perishing a nature, and man's memory so weak and frail in retaining them. it is necessary for a certain communication of knowledge, that some way should be found out more lasting than words, more firm than memory, more faithfull than tradition: which could not otherwise be imagined, than that the Authour of his own conceptions should himself leave them to the view of all posterity; in order to which, some way must be contrived whereby mens voices might be feen, and mens fingers speak. But how to express all kind of sounds, with the several draughts of a pen, and to confine them within the compass-of twenty-four letters, is deservedly called by Galileo, admirandarum omnium inventionum humanarum signaculum, the choicest of all humane inventions. And had we no other evidence of the great obscurity of ancient history, the great difference as to the first inventer of letters. would be a sufficient demonstration of it. For almost every Nation hath had a feveral Authour of them: The Fews derive them from Adam or Moses; the Egyptians attribute their invention to Thayt or Mercury; the Grecians to Cadmus, the Phanicians to Taautus, the Latins to Saturn, others to the Æthiopians: And lest the Pygmies should be without their enemies, some think they were found out a gruum volatu, from the manner of the flying of Cranes. Thus it hath happened with most Nations; what was first among themselves, they thought to be the first in the world.

Sect. 20.

But by whomsever they were first invented, we are certain they were but lately in use in that Nation, which hath most vainly arrogated the most to it self in point of Antiquity, and yet had the least reason (I mean the Grecians.) Thence the Agyptian Priest Patinet truly told Solon, the Greeks were always children, because they had rothing of the antiquities of former ages. If we may believe Josephus, they had no Writings earlier than Homer; but herein he is conceived to have served his cause too much, because of the Inscription of Amphy-

Procl. in Tim. c. App. l.8.

trio

Hift. 1. 5.

trio at Thebes in the Temple of Apollo Ismenius in the old Ionick letters, and two others of the same age to be seen in Herodotus, V. Boch. Geogr. and because of the Writings of Lycus, Orpheus, Musaus, Oroe- P. 2. l. 1. c. 20. bantius, Træzenius, Thaletas, Melefander, and others. This we are certain of, the Grecians had not the use of letters among them'till the time of Cadmus, the Phanicians coming into Greece, And Phot. Biwhither he came to plant a Colony of Phanicians there, whence blioth. 1. 37. arose the story of his pursuit of Europa, as Conon in Photius tells us.

And it is very probable which learned men have long fince observed, that the name Cadmus comes from the Hebrew DTP. and may relate as an appellative either to his dignity, as Junius in his Academia conjectures, or more probably to his Country, the East, which is frequently call'd Dip in Scripture. Some have conjectured further, that his proper name was my, upon what reason I know not, unless from hence, that thence by a duplication of the word, came the Greek " Dur , who feems to have been no other than Cadmus, as will appear by comparing their stories together. Only one was the name his memory was preferred by at Athens, where the Cadmeans inhabited, as appears by the Gephyrai, whom Herodotus tells us were Phanicians that came with Cadmus, (and others fansie the Academia Hist. 1.5. there was originally called Cadmea) and the name Cadmus was preserved chiefly among the Baotians in memory of the Country whence he came: It being likely to be imposed by them upon his first landing in the Country, as many learned persons conceive the name of an Hebrew was given to Abraham by the Canaanites upon his passing over the River Euphrates. On this account then it stands to reason, that the name which was given him as a stranger, should be longest preserved in the place where it was first imposed. Or if we take קרם in the other fence, as it imports antiquity; so there is still a higher probability of the affinity of the names of Cadmus and Ogyges; for this is certain, that the Greeks had no higher name for a matter of Antiquity, than to call it 'Ωχίχον, as the Scholiast on Hefied, Hesychius, Suidas, Eustathius on Dionysius, and many others observe. And which yet advanceth the probability higher, Luctatius or Lactantius the Scholiast on Statius, tells us, the other Greeks had this from the Thebanes; for, faith he, Thebani In Theb. 1. 1. res antiquas Ogygias nominabant. But that which puts it almost

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beyond meer probability, is, that Varro, Festus, Pausanias, Apollonius, Æschylus, and others make Ogyges the Founder of the Bootian Thebes, which were thence called Ogygiæ; and Strabo and Stephanus med minewy, further fay, that the whole Country of Baotia was called Ogygia; now all that mention the Story of Cadmus, attribute to him the founding of the Baotian Thebes. And withall it is observable, that in the Vatican Appendix of the

52.

De Regno Att. Lib. 8. c. 5.

Cent. 4. Prov. Greek Proverbs, we read Cadmus called Ogyges; Quina nava 377 τω οκληρών έπεὶ συνέβη Κάδμον τ Ωρύγην διὰ τὰς θυρατέρας κακοῖς weimour. Meursins indeed would have it corrected, Kasus 7 'Ωνίγε, as it is read in Suidas; but by the favour of fo learned a man, it feems more probable that Suidas should be corrected by that, he bringing no other evidence of any fuch person as Cadmus a Son of Ogyges, but only that reading in Suidas; whereas we have discovered many probable grounds to make them both the same. That which I would now infer from hence is. the utter impossibility of the Greeks giving us any certain account of ancient times, when a thing so modern in comparison as Cadmus his coming into Greece, is thought by them a matter of fo great antiquity, that when they would describe a thing very ancient, they described it by the name of Ogyges, who was the same with Cadmus. Now Cadmus his coming into Greece. is generally, by Historians, placed about the time of Foshua, whence fome (I will not fay how happily) have conjectured, that Cadmus and his company were some of the Canaanites who fled from Johna, as others are supposed to have done into Africa, if Procopius his pillar hath strength enough to bear such a conjecture. But there is too great a confusion about the time of Cadmus his arrival in Greece, to affirm any thing with any great certainty about it.

Yet those who disagree from that former Computation, place it yet lower. Vollins makes Agenor, Cadmus his Father, co-temporary with the latter end of Moses, or the beginning of Joshua; and so Cadmus his time must fall somewhat after. Jac. Capellus placeth Cadmus in the third year of Othoniel. Authour of the Greek Chronicle, in the Marmora Arundelliana makes his coming to Greece to be in the time of Hellen the fon of Deucalion; which Capellus fixeth on the 73. of Moses, A.M. 2995. But Mr. Selden conceives it somewhat lower: and fo it must be, if we follow Clemens Alexandrinus, who placeth it

De Idel. l. I. c. 13.

in the time of Lynceus King of the Argives, which he faith was strong I. EN SENATH USERRY Marios Vivea, in the eleventh Generation after Mofes, which will fall about the time of Samuel: But though it should be so late, it would be no wonder it should be reckoned a matter of fo great antiquity among the Grecians; for the eldest Records they have of any King at Athens, begin at the time of Moses, whose co-temporary Cecrops is generally thought to be; for at his time it is the Parian Chronicle begins. Now that the Grecians did receive their very letters from the Phanicians by Cadmus, is commonly acknowledged by the most learned of the Greeks themselves, as appears by the ingenuous confession of Herodotus, Philostratus, Critias in Athenaus, Zenodotus in Laertius, Timon Phliasius in Sixtus Empiricus, and many others: fo that it were to no purpose to offer to prove that, which they who arrogate fo much to themselves, do fo freely acknowledge. Which yet hath been done to very good purpose by Foseph Not. in Euseb. Scaliger and Bochartus, and many others from the form of the Chron. n. 1617. Letters, the order and the names of them. It feems probable Geogr p.3. 1.1. that at first they might use the form of the Phanician Letters, in which Herodotus tells us the three old Inscriptions were extant; and Diodorus tells us, that the brass pot which Cadmus offered to Minerva Lyndia, had an Inscription on it in the Phanician Letters, but afterwards the form of the Letters came by degrees to be changed, when for their greater expedition in writing they left the old way of writing towards the left hand, for the more natural and expedite way of writing towards the right, by which they exchanged the fites of the firokes in feveral Letters, as is observed by the fore-cited Learned Authors.

Not that the old Ionick Letters were nearer the Phanician, and distinct from the modern, as Jos. Sealiger in his learned Dif- In Euseb. n. course on the original of the Greek Letters conceives; for the 10- 1617. nick Letters were nothing else but the full Alphabet of twentyfour, with the additions of Palamedes, and Simonides Cous; as His. 1.7. cap Pliny tells us, that all the Greeks confented in the use of the 57. Ionick Letters; but the old Attick Letters came nearer the Phanician, because the Athenians, long after the Alphabet was increased to 24. continued still in the use of the old 16. which were brought in by Cadmus, which must needs much alter the way of writing; for in the old Letters, they writ THEOE for Osos, which made Pliny, with a great deal of learnv. Maussacum in Harpocr. Salmas. in Confecrat. Templ. p. 30.

SeEt. 21.

Nat. hift. 1. 5.

Strom. 1.6.

ing and truth, fay, that the old Greek Letters were the same with the Roman. Thence the Greeks called their ancient Letters 'Aflue yeauusta, as appears by Harpocration and Helychius, not that they were so much distinct from others, but because they did not admit of the addition of the other eight Letters, which difference of writing is in a great measure the cause of the different dialect between the Athenians and Ionians properly fo called.

We see then the very Letters of the Greeks were no elder than Cadmus; and for any confiderable learning among them, it was not near fo old. Some affert indeed that History began from the time of Cadmus; but it is by a mistake of him for a younger Cadmus, which was Cadmus Milefius whom Pliny makes to be the first Writer in Prose; but that he after attributes to Pherecydes Syrius, and History to Cadmus Milesius: c. 29. 1.7. c. 57. and therefore I think it far more probable, that it was some writing of this latter Cadmus, which was transcribed and epitomized by Bion Proconesius, although Clemens Alexandrinus feems to attribute it to the Elder. We fee how unable then the Grecians were to give an account of elder times, that were guilty of fo much infancy and nonage, as to begin to learn their Letters almost in the noon-tide of the World, and yet long after this to the time of the first Olympiad all their relations are accounted fabulous. A fair account then we are like to have from them of the first antiquities of the World, who could not speak plain truth 'till the World was above three thousand years old; for fo it was when the Olympiads began.

So true is the observation of Justin Martyr, Est Examor are The 'Onumador aneiges isten), the Greeks had no exact history of themselves before the Olympiads; but of that more after-

wards.

This is now the first defest which doth infringe the credibility of these Histories, which is the mant of timely and early records to digest their own history in.

CHAP. II.

Of the Phanician and Agyptian History.

The particular defect in the History of the most learned Heathen Nations. First the Phænicians. Of Sanchoniathon, his Antiquity and Fidelity. Of Jerom-baal, Baal-Berith. The Antiquity of Tyre. Scaliger vindicated against Bochartus Abibalus. The vanity of Phænician Theology. The imitation of it by the Gnosticks. Of the Ægyptian History. The Antiquity and Authority of Hermes Trismegistus. Of his Inscriptions on Pillars, transcribed by Manetho. His Fabulousness thence discovered. Terra Seriadica. Of Seth's Pillars in Josephus, and an account whence they were taken.

TAving already shewed a general defect in the ancient Heathen Histories, as to an account of ancient times; we now come to a closer, and more particular consideration of the Histories of those several Nations which have born the greatest name in the world for learning and antiquity. There are four Nations chiefly which have pretended the most to antiquity in the learned world, and whose Historians have been thought to deliver any thing contrary to Holy Writ in their account of ancient times, whom on that account we are obliged more particularly to consider; and those are the Phanicians, Chaldeans, Ægyptians, and Grecians; we shall therefore see what evidence of credibility there can be in any of these, as to the matter of antiquity of their Records, or the Histories taken from them. And the credibility of an Historian depending much upon the certainty and authority of the Records he makes use of, we shall both consider of what value and antiquity the pretended Records are, and particularly look into the age of the feveral Historians. As to the Grecians, we have feen already an utter impossibility of having any ancient Records among them, because they wanted the means of preserving them, having so lately borrowed their Letters from other Nations. Unless as to their account of times they had been as carefull as the old Romans were to number their years by the several clavi, or nails, which

they fixed on the Temple doors: which yet they were not in

Sect. 1.

any capacity to do, not growing up in an entire body, as the Roman Empire did, but lying so much scattered and divided into so many petty Republicks, that they minded very little of concernment to the whole Nation. The other three Nations have deservedly a name of far greater antiquity than any the Gracians could ever pretend to; who yet were unmeasurably guilty of an impotent affectation of antiquity; and arrogating to themselves, as growing on their own ground, what was with a great deal of pains and industry gathered but as the gleanings from the fuller harvest of those Nations they resorted to. Which is not only true as to the greatest part of their learning, but as to the account likewise they give of ancient times; the chief and most ancient Histories among them being only a corruption of the History of the elder Nations; especially Phanicia and Agypt: for of these two Philo Byblius the Translator of the ancient Phanician Historian Sanchoniathon, saith, they were παλαιότατοι τη Βαεβάρων, παρ' ών κὶ δι λοιποι παρέλαβεν ανθρωποι, The most ancient of all the Barbarians, from whom the others derived their Theology; which he there particularly instanceth in.

Apud Euseb. pr.xp. Evang. l. i. c. 8. p.23. Ed. R. St.

Sect. 2.

We begin therefore with the Phanician History, whose most ancient and famous Historian is Sanchoniathon, so much admired and made use of by the shrewdest antagonist ever Christianity met with, the Philosopher Porphyrius. But therein was feen the wonderfull Providence of God, that out of this eater came forth meat, and out of the Lion, honey; that the most considerable testimonies by him produced against our Religion, were of the greatest strength to refute his own. For he being of too great Learning to be satisfied with the vain pretences of the Gracians, he made it his business to search after the most ancient Records, to find out somewhat in them to confront with the antiquity of the Scriptures; but upon his fearch could find none of greater veneration than the Phanician History, nor any Authour contending for age with this Sanchoniathon Yet when he had made the most of his Testimony, he was fain to yield him younger than Moses, though he supposeth him elder than the Trojan Wars. And yet herein was he guilty of a most gross arnsorria, not much exceeding the Gracians in his skill in Chronology, when he makes Semiramis co-existent with the Siege of Troy: as is evident in his testimony produced at large by

by Eulebius out of his fourth Book against the Christians; nay, Pres. Evane. he goes to prove the truth of Sanchoniathon's History by the 1. 10. c. 8. p. agreement of it with that of Moses concerning the 7ews, 285. both as to their names and places, isoger of Ta Teel Isolator a'Anθε ςατα όπ κ) τοίς τόποις κ) τοίς ονόμαση αυτών τα συμφωνότατα: Whereby he doth evidently affert the greater Truth and Antiquity of Moses his History, when he proves the truth of Sanchoniathon's from his confonancy with that.

Two things more Porphyrie infifts on to manifest his credibility; the one I suppose relates to what he reports concerning the Tews, the other concerning the Phanicians themselves. For the first, that he made use of the Records of Ferom-baal the Priest of the God Ieuo, or rather Iao; for the other, that he tifed all the Records of the feveral Cities, and the facred Infcriptions in the Temples. Who that Ferom-baal was, is much discussed among learned men, the finding out of which, hath been thought to be the most certain way to determine the age of Sanchoniathon. The learned Bochartus conceives him to be Geogr. Saer. p. 2. Gideon, who in Scripture is called Ferub-baal, which is of the l. 2. c. 17. fame sence in the Phanician language, only after their custom changing one b into m, as in Ambubaja Sambuca, &c. But admitting the conjecture of this learned person concerning Ferubbaal, yet I fee no necessity of making Sanchoniathon and him cotemporary; for I no where find any thing mentioned in Porphyrie implying that, but only that he made use of the Records of Jerub-baal, which he might very probably do at a confiderable distance of time from him, whether by those & we unique a. we mean the Annals written by him, or the Records concerning his actions; either of which might give Sanchoniathon considerable light into the history either of the Israelites or Phanicians. And it is so much the more probable, because presently after the death of Gideon, the Israelites worshipped Baal- Judg. 8. 33. berith; by which most probably is meant the Idol of Berith or Berytus, the place where Sanchoniathon lived; by which means the Berytians might come easily acquainted with all the remarkable passages of Ferub-baal.

But I cannot conceive how Sanchoniathon could be cotemporary with Gideon, (which yet if he were, he falls 182 years short of Moses,) especially because the building of Tyre, which that Authour mentions as an ancient thing (as hath been observed

SeEt. 3.

Sect. 4

Not. in fragm, observed by Scaliger) is by our best Chronologers placed about the time of Gideon, and about 65 years before the destruction of Troy. I know Bochartus, to avoid this argument, hath brought some evidence of several places called Tyrus in Phænicia, from Scylax his Periplus; but none, that there was any

more than one Tyrus of any great repute for antiquity. Now this Tyrus Josephus makes but 240 years elder than Solomon's Temple, and Justin but one year elder than the destruction of Trox. Neither can any account be given why Sidon should be

Troy. Neither can any account be given why Sidon should be fo much celebrated by ancient Poets, as Strabo tells us, when Tyre is not so much as mentioned by Homer, if the samous Tyre were of so great antiquity and repute as is pretended. It cannot be denied but that there is mention in Scripture of a Tyre elder than this we speak of, which we read of, Joshua 19.29. which some think to be that which was called Palætyrus, which Strabo makes to be 30 furlongs distant from the

Hist. Nat. 1.5.

cannot be denied but that there is mention in Scripture of a Tyre elder than this we speak of, which we read of, Joshua 19.29. which some think to be that which was called Palætyrus, which Strabo makes to be 30 furlongs distant from the great Tyre; but Pliny includes Palatyrus within the circumference of Tyre, and so makes the whole circuit of the City to be 19 miles. It is not to me fo certain to what place the name of Palætyrus refers, whether to any Tyrus before the first building of the great Tyre, or to the ruines of the great Tyre after its destruction by Nebuchadnezzar, compared with the new Tyre, which was built more inward to the Sea, and was after besieged by Alexander the Great. It may seem probable that Palætyrus may relate to the ruines of the great Tyre, in that it was after included in its circuit, and chiefly because of the prediction in Ezekiel 26.4. Thou shalt be built no more; for the Tyre erected after, was built not on the Continent, but almost in the Sea. If so, then Palætyrus, or the old famous Tyrus might stand upon a rock upon the brink of the Continent. and so the great argument of Bochartus is easily answered. which is, that after it is mentioned in Sanchoniathon's history, that Hypfouranius dwelt in Tyre upon the falling out between him and his brother Usous, Usous first adventured is Dinaway EMBnras, to go to fea, which, faith he, evidently manifests that the Tyre mentioned by Sanchoniathon was not the famous Insular Tyrus, but some other Tyre. This argument, I sav, is now casily answered, if the famous Tyre before its destruction by Nebuchadnezzar did stand upon the Continent; for then it might be the old famous Tyre still, notwithstanding what Sanchoniathon

choniathon speaks of the first venturing to Sea after Tyre was built. So then I conceive these several ages agreeable to the fame Tyre; the first was when it was a high strong rock on the Sea-side without many inhabitants; so I suppose it was when mentioned by Joshua as the bound of the tribe of Asher. The fecond Age was, when it was built a great City by the Sidonians upon the former place, and grew very populous and famous. which lasted 'till Nebuchadnezzar's time; after this, though it were never built up in the Continent again, yet a little farther into the Sea, a new and goodly City was erected, which was called new Tyre, and the remains on the Continent fide Palatyrus. Thus far then we have made good Scaliger's opinion against Bochartus, that the famous Sanchoniathon is not so old

as he is pretended to be.

Which will be further manifest, if that Abibalus, to whom Sect. 5. Sanchoniathon is supposed to dedicate his History, were the Father to Hiram, co-temporary with Solomon, as 70s. Scaliger sup- Not. in Euseb. poseth, who was 154 years after the destruction of Troy. In Chr. p. 12. the Tyrian Dynasties produced by Scaliger out of the Phanician Annals, this Abibalus is the first who occurs, and is cotemporary with David: Sanchoniathon then is of no great an- Canon. If ag. 1.2. tiquity, if this were the time he lived in. But Bochartus well observes, that it is not spoken of Abibalus King of Tyre, but of Abibalus King of Berytus, whom we may allow to be fomewhat nearer the time of Moses than the other Abibalus, as the Phanician Annals make it appear, as Porphyrie tells us; but yet we find his antiquity is not so great as to be able to contest with Moses, as Porphyrie himself confesseth, although we may freely acknowledge him to be far elder than any of the Greek Historians; which is all Vossius contends for, and suffi- De hist. Grac. ciently proves; but we are far from yielding him co-temporary l. 1. c. 1. with Semiramis, as Porphyrie would have him, and yet makes him junior to Moses, and to live about the time of the Trojan War, which is to reconcile the distance of near 800 years: fuch miserable confusion was there in the best learned Heathens in their computation of ancient times.

Having thus cleared the antiquity of Sanchoniathon, and the Sect. 6. Phanician History, we are next to consider the fidelity of it. This Sanchoniathon is highly commended for, both by Porphyrie, and his Translator into Greek, Philo Byblius, who lived

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in Adrian's time; and Theodoret thinks his name in the Phanician language fignifies piaaandus, which Bochartus endeavours to fetch from thence, and conceives the name to be given him when he fet himself to write his History; and he wisheth, and fo do we, that he had been then vir fui nominis, and made it appear by his writing that he had been a Lover of truth. Philo faith he was aving πολυμαθής κ'ς πολυ πράγμων, a very learned and inquisitive man; but either he was not so diligent to enquire after, or not so happy to light on any certain records; or if he did, he was not over-much a Lover of truth, in delivering them to the World. How faithfull he was in transcribing his History from his Records, we cannot be sufficient Judges of, unless we had those books of Taautus, and the sacred Inscriptions, and the Records of Cities, which he pretends to take his Hiftory from. to compare them together. But by what remains of his History. which is only the first book concerning the Phanician Theology extant in Eusebius, we have little reason to believe his History of the World and eldest times, without further proof than he gives of it, there being so much obscurity and confusion in it, when he makes a Chaos to be the first beginning of all things, and the Gods to come after, makes the autix flow and will the Son of Chryfor or Vulcan, and again the man born of earth to be feveral generations after ain and mention , who were the first mortal men; and yet from the two brethren TERVITHE and auto y flay came two Gods, whereof one was called 'Aye's, and the other 'Aye'ms. and this latter was worshipped with as much veneration as any of their Gods. Yet from these things, as foolish and ridiculous as they are, it is very probable the Gnoficks and the feveral fubdivisions of them might take the rife of their several Lones and Culvalas: for here we find 'Aiw and Mewrozev made two of the number of the Gods, but the rest of the names, they according to their feveral Selfs took a liberty of altering, according to their feveral fancies. This is far more probable to me, than that either Hefiod's Seozevia should be the ground of them; or the opinion of a late German Divine, who conceives that Philo Byblius did in imitation of the Gnosticks, form this holy story of Exerc. 3. feet. 1. the Phanician Theology. For although I am far from believing what Kircher somewhere tells us, that he had once got a fight of Sanchoniathon's Original History (it being not the first thing that learned man hath been deceived in,) yet I fee no ground of

Job. Vrfinus

so much peevishness, as because this History pretends to so much antiquity, we should therefore presently condemn it as a figment of the Translator of it. For had it been so, the Antagonists of Porphyrie, Methodius, Apollinaris, but especially Eusebius, fo well versed in antiquities, would have found out so great a cheat: Although I must confess they were oft-times deceived with pia fraudes; but then it was when they made for the Christians, and not against them, as this did. But besides a fabulous confusion of things together, we have some things delivered concerning their Gods, which are both contrary to all natural notions of a Deity, and to those very common principles of humanity, which all acknowledge. As when years, or Saturn, fufpecting his Son Sadidus, destroyed him with his own hands, and warr'd against his Father Vranus, and after destroyed him likewise, and buried his Brother Atlas alive in the earth; which being taken, as Philo Byblius contends they ought to be, in the literal sence, are such incongruities to all notions of a divine nature, that it is the greatest wonder there should be any that should believe there was any God, and believe these were Gods together.

But although there be so many gross fables and inconsisten- Sect. 7. cies in this Phanician Theology, that are fo far from meriting belief in themselves, that it were a sufficient forfeiture of reafon to fay they were credible; yet when we have a greater light in our hands of divine revelation, we may in this dungeon find out many excellent remainders of the ancient tradition. though miferably corrupted, as concerning the Creation, the Original of Idolatry, the invention of Arts, the foundation of Cities, the story of Abraham, of which in their due place. That which of all feems the clearest in this Theology, is the open owning the original of Idolatry to have been from the confecration of some eminent persons after their death, who have found out some usefull things for the world while they were living: which the fubtiller Greeks would not admit of, viz. that the persons they worshipped were once men, which made them turn all into Allegories and Mystical sences to blind that Idolatry they were guilty of the better among the ignorant: which makes Philo Byblius fo very angry with the Neoterick Grecians, as he calls them, os av Beliarus vas ni kn antos Tis Teel Dear withs en' April Enfeb. andnoeias a quonas Singinous Te a Seweias avayen: That with a Prap. 1.1. c.6. great deal of force and straining they turned all the stories of the P. 23.

Gods into Allegories and Physical discourses. Which is all the Ingenuity that I know is to be found in this Phænician Theology, that therein we find a free acknowledgment of the beginning of the Heathen Idolatry: and therefore Sanchoniathon was as far from advancing Porphyrie's Religion, as he was in the least from overthrowing the credibility of Christianity.

Sect. 8.

The next we come to then, are the Egyptians; a people fo unreasonably given to fables, that the wifest action they did. was to conceal their Religion, and the best office their Gods had, was to hold their fingers in their mouths, to command filence to all that came to worship them. But we design not here any fet discourse concerning the vanity of the Ægyptian Theology, which yet was fo monfrously ridiculous, that even those who were over-run with the height of Idolatry themselves, did make it the object of their fcorn and laughter. And certainly had we no other demonstration of the greatness of man's apostasie and degeneracy, the Ægyptian Theology would be an irrefragableevidence of it: for who could but imagine a strange lowness of spirit in those who could fall down and worship the basest and most contemptible of creatures! Their Temples were the best Hieroglyphicks of themselves, fair and goodly structures without, but within some deformed creature enshrined for veneration. But though the Ægyptians had lost their credit so much as to matters of Religion; yet it may be supposed, that they who were so famed for wisdom and antiquity, should be able to give a full and. exact account of themselves through all the ages of the world. And this they are so far from being defective in, that if you will believe them, they will give you an account of themselves many thousands of years before ever the world was made, but the peculiar vanity of their Chronology will be handled afterwards: That we now enquire into, is, what certain Records they had of their own antiquity, which might call for affent from any unprejudiced mind; whether there be any thing really answering that loud and unparallell'd cry of antiquity among the Agyptians, whereby they will make all other Nations in comparison of them, to be but of yesterday, and to know nothing. We question not now their pretence to wisdom and learning, but are the more in hopes to meet with some certain way of saturaction concerning ancient times, where learning is supposed to have flourished so much, even when Greece it felf was accounted barbarous.

The great Basis of all the Agyptian History depends on the Sect. 9. credit of their ancient Hermes, whom out of their veneration they called Trismegistus; for to him they ascribe the first invention of their learning, and all excellent Arts; from him they derive their history; their famous Historian Manetho, profesfing to transcribe his Dynasties from the pillars of Hermes. We shall therefore first see of what credit and antiquity Hermes himself was, and of what account particularly those pillars were which hold up all the Fabrick of Manetho his Dynasties. For Hermes himself, the story conneering him is so various and uncertain, that some have from thence questioned whether ever there were fuch a person or no, because of the strangely different account that is given of him. Cotta in Tully, in or- De Nat. Deor. der to the establishing his academical doctrine of withholding 1.3. assent, mentions no fewer than five Mercuries, of which, two he makes Agyptian, one of them the Hermes we now speak of. whom the Agyptians call Thoyth, and was the Author both of their Laws and Letters. The Egyptians, as appears by Diodorus, make him to be a facred Scribe to Osiris, and to have instructed Isis; and when Osiris, went upon any warlike expedition, he committed the management of affairs to him for his great wisedom. The Phanicians preserve his memory among them too: for Philo Byblius faith, that Sanchoniathon described his Theology from the books of Taautus, whom the Ægyptians call Thoyth, who was the first inventer of Letters, and was a Counsellor to Saturn, whose advice he much relied on. What now must we pitch upon in so great uncertainties? How come the Phanician and Agyptian Theology to come both from the same person, which are conceived so much to differ from each other? If we make the stories of Osiris and Isis to be fabulous, and merely allegorical, as Plutarch doth, then Mercury himfelf must become an Allegory, and the Father of Letters must be an Hieroglyphick. If we admit the Ægyptians narrations to be real, and feek to reduce them to truth, and thereby make Ofiris to be Mitfraim the son of Cham, who first ruled in Agypt, all that we can then affirm of Hermes is, That he might be some usefull person, who had a great influence both upon the King and State, and did first settle the Nation in a politick way of government, whose memory on that account the Agyptians might preserve with the greatest veneration; and when

made

De Myft. l. 1.

when they were once fallen into that Idolatry, of confecrating the memories of the first Contributers to the good of mankind, they thought they had the greatest reason to adore his memory. and so by degrees attributed the invention of all usefull things to him. For fo it is apparent they did, when Iamblichus tells us the Agyptians attributed all their books to Mercury, as the Father of them; because he was reputed the Father of wit and learning, they made all the off-forings of their brains to bear their Fathers name. And this hath been the great reason the world hath been so long time imposed upon with varieties of books going under the name of Hermes Trismegistus. For he was not the first of his kind, who in the early days of the Christian world obtruded upon the world that Cento or confused mixture of the Christian, Platonick, and Agyptian dostrine, which is extant still under the name of Hermes Trismegistus; whose vanity and falshood hath been sufficiently detected by learned men. There were long before his time extant feveral Mercurial books, as they were called, which none of the mifer Heathens did ever look on as any other than fables and impostures, as appears by Porphyrie's letter to Anebo the Agyptian Priest, and lamblichus his answer to it in his Book of the Agyptian

Sect. 10.

Musteries.

We have then no certainty at all, notwithstanding the great fame of Hermes, of any certain Records of ancient times, unless they be contained in those sacred inscriptions from whence Manetho took his history. It must be acknowledged that the most ancient way of preferving any monuments of learning in those elder times, was by these inscriptions on pillars, especially among the Agyptians, as is evident from the several testimonies of Galen, Proclus, Jamblicus, and the Authour of the Book cal-Gal. I. c. Iul. led Sapientia secundum Agyptios, adjoyned to Aristotle, who all concurr in this, that whatever laudable invention they had among them, it was inscribed on some pillars, and those preserved in their Temples, which were instead of Libraries to them. Manetho therefore to make his story the more probable, pre-Sap. c. 2. f. 1. tends to take all his relations from these sacred inscriptions; and as Eusebius tells us, translated the whole Agyptian History into Greek. beginning from their Gods, and continuing his History down near the time of Darius Codomannus, whom Alexander conquered: for in Eusebius his Chronica mention is

Procl. in Tim. p. 31. Iamb. de myft. c. 2. f. I.

made of Manetho his History, ending the 16th year of Artaxerxes Ochus, which, saith Vossius, was in the second year of the 107th Olympiad. This Manetho Sebennyta was High Priest De Hist. Grae. of Heliopolis, in the time of Ptolomaus Philadelphus, at whose l. 1. c. 14. request he writ his History, which he digested into three Tomes, the first containing the 11 Dynasties of the Gods and Heroes; the fecond, 8 Dynasties; the third 12, all containing, according to his fabulous computation, the fumm of 53525 years. These Dynasties are yet preserved, being first epitomized by Julius Africanus, from him transcribed by Eusebius in his Chronica, from Eusebius by Georgius Syncellus, out of whom they are produced by Fos. Scaliger, and may be seen both in Eusebius,

and his Canones Isagogici.

Now Manetho, as appears by Eusebius, voucheth this as the Sect. 11. main testimony of his credibility, that he took his History, in สัม อง รที รทอเลงให้ที่ วที หงุนนิย์อง รทุ้งอง, โรคลี ชาลหลาใจ หา โรคราคลองหถี่เร γράμμαπ κεχαρα πεισμένον των Θωύθ, το φρώτο Ερμό, κὶ ερμένευθεισων, μυ + Καβάκλυσμον επ f ispas stankels sis των έλλωνίδα σωνω γράμμαση ίερογλυφικοίς, κὶ αποξεθασών εν βίβλοις το το Αχα-Bodaiun O To devices Eque, ralogs i To Tal, en rois advois The isear Aizuration. From some pillars in the Land of Seriad, in which they were inscribed in the sacred dialect by the first Mercury Tyth, and after the floud were translated out of the sacred dialect into the Greek tongue in Hieroglyphick Characters, and are laid up in books among the Revestries of the Egyptian Temples, by Agathodæmon, the second Mercury, the Father of Tat. Certainly this fabulous Authour could not in fewer words have more manifested his own impostures, nor blasted his own credit more than he hath done in these; which it is a wonder so many learned men have taken so little notice of, which have found frequent occasion to speak of Manetho and his Dynasties. This I shall make appear by some great improbabilities, and other plain impossibilities which are couched in them. The improbabilities are, first such pillars, being in such a place as Seriad, and that place no more spoken of either by himself, or by any other Agyptians, nor any use made of these inscriptions by any other but himself. As to this terra Seriadica where it should be, the very learned and inquisitive Foseph Scaliger plainly gives out, and ingenuously professeth his ignorance. For in his notes on the fragments of Manetho in Eusebius, when he comes

21.

to that in The Inecasting, he only faith, Que nobis ignota Not. in gr. Eu- quærant studiosi. But Isaac Vossius, is his late Discourses, De seb. p. 408. De atate mundi, cries evence, and confidently persuades himself at mund. c. 10. that it is the same with Seirah, mentioned, Judges 3. 16. Indeed were there nothing else to be considered but affinity of names, it might well be the fame, but that שולים, which we render the stone-quarries, should signifie these pillars of Mercury, is somewhat hard to conceive. The Seventy render it, as himself observes, ra younda, by which they understand graven Images: So the word is used 2 Chron. 33. 19. Deut. 7. 5. Ifa. 10. 19. The vulgar Latin renders it, ad locum Idolorum, which were the certain interpretation, if Chytraus his conje-Chure were true, that Eglon had lately fet up Idols there; but if it be meant of pillars, I cannot but approve of Junius his interpretation, which I conceive bids fairest to be the genuine Josh. 4. 19,20, sence of the place, viz. that these stones here, were the 12 stones pitched by Foshua in Gilgal after the Israelites passed over Fordan; and these stones are faid to be by Gilgal, Judges 3. 19. So that notwithstanding this handsome conjecture, we are as far to feek for the pillars of Mercury as ever we were, and may be fo to the world's end. Secondly, the standing of these pillars during the floud, which must be supposed certainly to have some singular virtue in them to resist such a torrent of waters, which overthrew the strongest built houses, and most compacted Cities; the plain impossibilities are first, that Manethe should transcribe his Dynasties from the beginning of the History of Aigypt, to almost the time of Alexander, out of sacred Inscriptions of Thoyth, who lived in the beginning of the very first Dynasty according to his own computation. Sure this Thoyth was an excellent Prophet, to write an History for above 50000 years to come, as Manetho reckons it. Secondly, it is as well still, that this History after the floud should be tranflated into Hieroglyphick Characters; what kind of translation is that? we had thought hieroglyphicks had been representations of things, and not of founds and letters, or words: How could this History have at first been written in any tongue. when it was in hieroglyphicks? Do hieroglyphicks speak in several languages, and are they capable of changing their tongues? But, thirdly, it is as good still, that the second Mercury or Agathodæmon did translate this History so soon after the floud into

into Greek: Was the Greek tongue so much in request so soon after the floud, that the Egyptian History for the sake of the Greeks must be translated into their language? Nay, is it not evident from Herodotus and Diodorus, that the Grecians were Herod. 1. 2. not permitted so much as any commerce with the Egyptians, Diod. 1. c.67. till the time of Psammeticus, which fell out in the 26th Dynasty of Manetho, and about a Century after the beginning of the Olympiads. We see then how credible an Author Manetho is, and what truth there is like to be in the account of ancient times given by the Egyptian Historians, when the chief of them so lamentably and ominously stumbles in his very entrance into it.

credit, took his famous story of Seth's pillars, concerning Astronomical observations before the floud, from this story of Manetho; and therefore I cannot but look upon them with as jealous an eye as on the other, although I know how fond the world hath been upon that most ancient monument, as is pretended, of learning in the world. Du Bartas hath write whole Poem on these pillars, and the truth is, they are fitter subjects for Poets than any else, as will appear on these considerations. First, how strangely improbable is it, that the posterity of Seth, who, as is pretended, did foreknow a destruction of the world to be by a floud, should busie themselves to write Astronomical observations on pillars, for the benefit of those who should live after it? Could they think their pillars should have some peculiar exemption above stronger structures, from the violence of the rough and furious waters? If they believed the floud absolutely universal, for whom did they intend their observations? if not, to what end did they make them, when the persons surviving

might communicate their inventions to them? But, Secondly, if either one or both these pillars remained, whence comes it to pass that neither the chaldeans, nor any of the eldest Pretenders to Astronomy, should neither mention them, nor make any use of them? Nay, Thirdly, Whence came the study of Astronomy to be so lamentably defective in those ancient times, if they had such certain observations of the heavenly bodies gathered by so much experience of the persons who

of his taking his history from these pillars before the floud, I cannot but think that Josephus, an Author otherwise of good

And yet as fabulous as this account is, which Manetho gives Sect. 12.

lived

lived before the Floud? Fourthly, How comes Fosephus himself to neglect this remarkable testimony of the truth of Scripture-history in his books against Appion, if he had thought it were such as might be relyed on? Fifthly, How comes Fosephus so carelefly to fet down the place in Syria where these pillars stood. that inquisitive persons might have satisfied themselves with the fight of the pillar at least, and what kind of characters those observations were preserved in? But now, if we compare this of 'fosephus with Manetho his story, we shall find them so exactly resemble each other, that we may well judge all those pillars to have been taken out of the same quarry. Two things make it yet more probable: First, The name of the place wherein they flood, which Eustathius in Hexaemeron takes out of Josephus, and calls Enigeal, the very fame place with that in Manetho. The other is the common use of the name of Seth among the Agyptians, as not only appears by Plutarch de Iside & Osiride, but by this very place of Manetho; where it follows, & βίβλω Σώθεως, a book of his, bear-Apud Scaliger, ing the title which Vettius Valens Antiochenus tells us is not calnot. Gr. p. 438. led Sags, but Sis. Now therefore Fosephus, who frequently useth the Testimony of Heathen Writers, and frequently of this Manetho, endeavoured to bring this fabulous relation of Manetho as near the truth as he could; therefore instead of Thoyth he puts Seth, and the fabulous history of Ægypt, the inventions of the Patriarchs, and Syria instead of Seriadica, a Countrey too large to find these pillars in.

CHAP.

CHAP. III.

Of the Chaldean History.

The contest of Antiquity among Heathen Nations, and the ways of deciding it. Of the Chaldean Astrology, and the foundation of Judicial Astrology. Of the Zabii, their Founder, who they were, no other than the old Chaldees. Of Berosus and his History. An account of the fabulous Dynasties of Berofus and Manetho. From the Translation of the Scripturehistory into Greek in the time of Ptolomy. Of that translation and the time of it. Of Demetrius Phalerius. Scaliger's arguments answered. Manetho writ after the Septuagint, proved against Kircher; his arguments answered. Of Rabbinical and Arabick Authours, and their little credit in matter of History. The time of Berosus enquired into; his writing co-temporary with Philadelphus.

THE next whom our Enquiry leads us to, are the Chaldeans, a Nation of great and undoubted Antiquity, being in probability the first formed into a National Government after the Flood, and therefore the more capable of having these Arts and Sciences flourish among them, which might preserve the memory of eldest times to the view of posterity. And yet even among these who enjoyed all the advantages of ease, quiet, and a flourishing Empire, we find no undoubted or credible Records preserved, but the same vanity as among the Egyptians, in arrogating antiquity to themselves beyond all proportion of reason or satisfaction from their own history, to fill up that vast measure of time with, which makes it most probable what Diodorus observes of them, that in things pertaining to their Biblioth. 1. 1. arts they made use of Lunar years of 20 days; so they had need, when Tully tells us that they boasted of observations of the Stars De Divin . 1.1 for 470000 years, which after Diodorus his computation, and the vulgar account of years from the beginning of the world, will fall near upon, if not before the Creation. It had been impossible for them to have been so extravagant in their accounts of themselves, had they but preserved the History of their Nation in any certain Records. For want of which, the tradition

Sect. 1.

tradition of the eldest times, varying in the several families after their distersion, and being gradually corrupted by the policy of their Leaders, and those corruptions readily embraced by the predominancy of self-love in the several Nations, thence arose those vain and eager contests between the Chaldeans, Scythians, Ægyptians, and Æthiopians, concerning the antiquity of their feveral Nations: which may be feen in Diodorus, and others: by which it most evidently appears that they had no certain bistory of their own Nations: for none of them infift upon any Records, but only upon several probabilities from the nature of their Country, and the Climates they lived under. need F sammeticus have been put to that ridiculous way of deciding the controversie by his two infants bred up without any converse with men, concluding the language they spake would manifest the great antiquity of the Nation it belonged to: Whereas it is more than probable they had spoken none at all, had they not learned the inarticulate voice of the goats they had more converse with than men. The making use of such ways to decide this controverse doth not only argue the great weakness of those times as to natural knowledge; but the abfolute defect and insufficiency of them, as to the giving any certain account of the state of ancient times.

Se &t. 2.

Of which the Chaldeans had advantages above all other Heathen Nations, not only living in a fetled Country, but in or near that very place where the grand Ancestors of the world had their chief abode and residence. Whereby we see how unfaithfull a thing Tradition is, and how foon it is corrupted or fails, where it hath no fure records to bottom its felf upon. But indeed it is the less wonder that there should be a confufion of histories, where there had been before of tongues; and that fuch whose design and memory God had blasted before, should afterwards forget their own original. But as if the Chaldeans had retained fomething still of their old aspiring mind to reach up to Heaven, the only thing they were eminent for, and which they were carefull in preserving of, was some Astronomical observations, which Tully tells us they had a great conveniency for, by reason of the plain and even situation of their Country; whereby they might have a larger prospect of the heavenly bodies, than those who lived in mountainous Countries could have. And yet even for this (which they were fo famous for, that that the name Chaldeans passed for Astrologers in the Roman Empire) we have no very great reason to admire their excellency in it, confidering how foon their skill in Astronomy dwindled into that which by a great Catachresis is called judicial Altrology. The original of which is most evident among them. as all other Heathen Nations, to have been from the Divinity which they attributed to the Stars; in which yet they were far more rational than those who now admire that Art: For. granting their hypothesis, that the Stars were Gods, it was but reasonable they should determine contingent effects; but it is far from being so with them who take away the foundation of all those celestial houses, and yet attribute the same effects to them, which they did, who believed a Divinity in them. The Chaldeans, as Diodorus relates, set 30 Stars under the Planets; L. 2. Biblioth. these they called sunais sess; others they had as Princes over these, which they called As Dewy xueiss; the former were as the privy Counsellors, and these the Princes over them, by whom in their courses they supposed the course of the year to be regulated. We see then what a near affinity there was between Astrology and the Divinity of the Stars, which makes Ptolomy call them Tetrab. 1. 2. Atheists who condemned Astrology, because thereby they destroyed the main of their Religion, which was the worshipping the Stars for Gods. But it feems by Strabo, that one of the Geogr. 1. 16. Selts of the Chaldeans did so hold to Astronomy still, that they wholly rejected Genethlialogy, which caused a great division among the Orchoeni and the Borsippeni, two Sects among them, fo called from the places of their habitations.

And if we reckon the Zabii among the Chaldeans, as Maimonides feems to do, we have a further evidence of the Planetary Deities fo much in request among the Chaldeans; for the description he gives of them is to this purpose, That they More Nevoch. had no other Gods but the Stars to whom they made statues and P. 3. c. 29. images, to the Sun golden, to the Moon filver, and so to the rest of the Planets of the Metals dedicated to them. Those Images derived an influence from the Stars to which they were erested, which had thence a faculty of foretelling future things; which is v. Scaliger, et. an exact description of the sux sia or Talismans so much in re- ad Casaub. & quest among the Heathers; such as the Palladium of Troy is ep. G. Mic. Selsupposed by learned men to have been. These Talismans are den de Diis Syby the Jews called David's bucklers, and are much of the same Salmas. de An-

Sect. 3.

nature Climac. p. 578.

Ship,

nature with the ancient Teraphim, both being accurately made according to the positions of the heavens; only the one were to fore-tell future things, the other for the driving away some ralamity. Concerning these Zabii, Maimonides tells us, that the understanding their rites would give a great deal of light to several passages of Scripture which now lie in obscurity: but little is supposed to be yet further known of them than what Scaliger hath said, that they were the more Eastern Chaldeans, which he setcheth from the signification of the word; several of their books are extant, saith Scaliger, among the Arabians, but none of them are yet discovered to the Furopean World. Salmassus thinks these Zabii were the Chaldeans inhabiting Mesopotamia, to which it is very consonant which Maimonides De jure not & saith, that Abraham had his education among them. Said Batrigent 1.2. c. 7. cides, cited by Mr. Selden, attributes the original of their religion.

gion to the time of Nahor, and to Zaradchath the Persian as the Authour of it, who is conceived to be the same with Zoroaster, who in all probability is the same with the Zertooft of the Persees, a Sect of the ancient Persens living now among the Banyans in the Indies. These give a more full and exact account concerning the original, birth, education, and enthusiasms, or revelations of their Zertooft, than any we meet with in any Greek Historians; three books they tell us of which Zertooft received by Revelation, or rather one book, confifting of three feveral tracts, whereof the first was concerning judicial Astrology, which they call Aftoodeger; the second concerning thyfick, or the knowledge of natural things; the third was called Zertooft, from the bringer of it, containing their religious rites; the first was committed to the Jesopps, or Magi's, the fecond to Phylicians, the third to the Daroves or Church-men, wherein are contained the several precepts of their Law; we have likewise the rites and customs of these tersees in their worship of fire, with many other particular rites of theirs published some time since by one Mr. Lord, who was a long time resident among them at Surrat; by which we may not only understand much of the Religion of the ancient Persians, but if I mistake not, somewhat of the Zabii too. My reasons are, because the ancient Zaradcha or Zoroaster is by Said Batricides made the Authour of the Zabii, as we have feen already, who was undoubtedly the founder of the Persian wor(hip, or rather a promoter of it among the Persians; For Ammianus Marcellinus tells us that he was instructed in the Hift. 1. 23. rites of the Chaldeans, which he added to the Persian rites; besides, their agreement in the chief point of Idolatry, the worthip of the Sun, and confequently the megatica or Symbol of the Sun, the eternal fire, is evident; which as far as we can learn, was the great and most early Idolatry of the Eastern Countries; and further we find God in Leviticus 26. 20. threatning to destroy their חמניכם their Images of the Sun, some render it; but most probably by that word is meant the measta, the hearths where they kept their perpetual fire, for those are מנים from המה, which is used both for the Sun V. Vost. Idol. and Fire. Now hence it appears that this Idolatry was in use 1. 2. c. 9. among the Nations about Palestine; else there had been no need of so severe a threatning against it, and therefore most probably the rites of the Zabii (which must help us to explain the reasons of some particular positive precepts in the Levitical Law relating to Idolatry) are the same with the rites of the Chaldeans and Persians, who all agreed in this worship of the Sun and Fire; which may be yet more probable from what Maimonides saith of them, that Gens Zabæa erat gens quæ implevit totum orbem; it could not be then any obscure Nation, but such as had the largest spread in the Eastern Countries, which could be no other than the ancient Chaldeans, from whom the Persians derived their worship. It may not feem altogether improbable that Balaam the famous Southfayer was one of these Zabii, especially if according to Salmafins his judgment they inhabited Mesopotamia; for Balaam's Country seems to be there; for it is said, Numb. 22. 5. that be dwelt in Pethor by the river, i.e. faith the Chaldee Paraphrast. in Peor of Syria by Euphrates; which in Scripture is called the river, Efa. 8. 7. But from this great obscurity as to the history of fo ancient and fo large a people as these Zabii are supposed to be, we have a further evidence to our purpose of the defectiveness and insufficiency of the Eastern Histories as to the giving any full account of themselves and their own original.

We are told indeed by some, that Nahonasser did burn and destroy all the ancient Records of the Chaldeans which they had diligently preserved amongst them before, on purpose to

Sect. 4.

raise the greater reputation to himself, and blot out the memory of his usurpation, by burning the Records of all their own ancient Kings. Which is a conceit I suppose hath no other ground than that the famous Æra so much celebrated by Aftronomers and others, did bear the name of Nabonasser. Which (if we should be so greedy of all empty conjectures which tend to our purpose as to take them for truths) would be a very strong evidence of the falshood and vanity of the Chaldeans in their great pretences to antiquity. But as the case stands in reference to their History, we find more evidence from Scripture to affert their just antiquity, than ever they are able to produce out of any undoubted records of their own. Which vet hath been endeavoured by an Authour both of some credit and antiquity, the true Berofus, not the counterfeit of Annius, whose vizard we shall have occasion to pull off afterwards. This Berofus was, as Fosephus and Tatianus affure us, a Priest of Belus and a Babylonian born, but afterwards flourished in the If the of Co, and was the first who brought the Chaldean Astrology in request among the Greeks; in honour to whose name and memory, the Athenians (who were never backward in applauding. those who brought them the greatest news, especially if suitable to their former superstition) erected a statue for him with a gilded tongue. A good emblem of his History, which made a fair and specious shew, but was not that within, which it pretended to be: especially where he pretends to give an account of the most ancient times, and reckons up his two Dynasties before the time of Belus: but of them afterwards. It cannot be denied but some fragments of his history, which have been preserved from ruine by the care and industry of Fosephus, Tatianus, Eusebius and others, have been very usefull, not only for proving the truth of the history of Scripture to the Heathens; but also for illustrating some passages concerning the Babylonian Empire: as making Nabopolasser the Father of Nebucadonosor,

Append ad 1.

G. App. 1. 1.

s. Gracos.

de Emend. Temp. of which Scaliger hath fully spoken in his notes upon his fragments.

Se &t. 5:

Far be it from me to derogate any thing even from prophane histories, where they do not enterfere with the sacred History of Scripture; and it is certainly the best improvement of these to make them draw water to the Sancinary, and to serve as smaller Stars to conduct us in our may, when we cannot enjoy the benefit

nefit of that greater light of facred History. But that which I impeach these prophane histories of, is only an insufficiency as to that account of ancient times, wherein they are so far from giving light to sacred Records, that the design of setting of them up feems to be for casting a cloud upon them. Which may feem somewhat the more probable in that those monstrous accounts of the Agyptian and Chaldean Dynasties did never publickly appear in the world in the Greek Tongue, 'till the time that our facred Records were translated into Greek at Alexandria. For 'till that time when this authentick history of the world was drawn forth from its privacy and retirement, (being as it were lockt up before among the Israelites at Judæa) into the publick notice of the world about the time of Ptolomaus Philadelphus, these vain pretenders to antiquity thought not themselves so much concerned to stand up for the credit of their own Nations. For 'till that time the credulous world, not being acquainted with any certain report of the creation and propagation of the world, was apt to swallow any thing that was given forth by those who were had in so great esteem as the Chaldean and Agyptian Priests were: Because it was supposed that those persons who were freed from other avocations, had more leifure to inquire into these things; and because of their mysterious hiding what they had from the vulgar, were prefumed to have a great deal more than they had. But now when the Sun of righteousness was approaching this Horizon of the world, and in order to that the facred History like the day-star was to give the world notice of it, by which the former shadows and mists began to fly away, it concerned all those whose interest lay in the former ignorance of mankind, as much as they could to raise all their ignes fatui, and whatever might tend to obscure that approaching light, by invalidating the credit of that which came to bespeak its acceptance.

It is very observable to consider what gradations and steps there were in the world to the appearance of that grand light which came down from heaven to direct us in our way thither; how the world not long before was awakened into a greater inquisitiveness than ever before, how knowledge grew into repute, and what methods divine providence used to give the inquisitive world a tast of Truth at present to stay their G 2 stomachs.

Seit. 6.

Romachs, and prepare them for that further discovery of it afterwards. In order to this that Nation of the Tews which was an inclosed garden before, was now thrown open, and many of the plants removed and fet in Foreign Countries, not only in Babylon (where even after their return were left three famous Schools of learning, Sora, Pombeditha, and Neharda but in Ægypt too, where multitudes of them by Alexander's fayour were settled at Alexandria, where they had opportunity to feason those two great fountains, whence the current of knowledge ran into the rest of the world. And now it was not in Fewry only that God was known, but he whose name was great in Israel, did make way for the knowledge of himself among all the Nations of the earth. And that All-wife God who directed the Magi by a star to Christ, making use of their former skill in Astronomy to take notice of that star which came now on a peculiar errand to them to lead them to their Saviour (The great God condescending so far to mankind, as to take advantage of particular inclinations, and to accommodate himself to them; for which purpose it is very observable that he appeared in another way to the Wife men, than to the poor Shepherds) the same God made use of the curiofity and inquisitiveness after knowledge, which was in Ptolomæus Philadelphus (which he is so much applauded for by Athenams and others) to bring to light the most advantageous knowledge which the world ever had before the coming of Christ in the flest. And that great Library of his erecting at Alexandria did never deserve that title 'till it had lodged those facred Records, and then it did far better than the old one of Osymanduas, of which Historians tell us this was the Inscription 'Laterior Lugis. The shop of the Souls Physick.

V. Casaub. ad. in Athenaum, l. 5. c. 9.

Seft. 7.

But this being a matter of fo much concernment in order to our better understanding the original of these vast accounts of time among the Chaldeans and Agyptians, and a subject not yet touched by any, we shall a little further improve the probability of it, by taking a more particular account of the time when the Scriptures were first translated, and the occasion might thereby be given to these Agyptians and Chaldeans to produce their fabulous account into the view of the world. Whether the Scriptures had been ever before translated into the Greek language, (though it be asserted by some

ancient Writers of the Church,) is very questionable, chiefly upon this account, that a sufficient reason cannot be assigned of undertaking a new translation at Alexandria if there had been any extant before. Especially if all those circumstances of that translation be true which are commonly received and delivered down to us with almost an unanimous confent of the persons who had greater advantages of knowing the certainty of such things, than we can have at this great distance of time. And therefore certainly every petty conjecture of some modern, though learned men, ought not to bear sway against so unanimous a tradition in a matter of fast, which cannot be capable of being proved but by the testimony of former ages. And it is somewhat strange that the single testimony of one Hermippus in Diogenes Laertius (whose age and autho- Vit. Demetrii. rity is somewhat doubtfull) concerning only one particular referring to Demetrius Phalereus, should be thought of force enough among persons of judgment as well as learning, to infringe the credibility of the whole story delivered with so much confent, not only by Christian, but Jewish Writers; the testimony of one of which (every whit as considerable as Hermippus) viz. Aristobulus Judans a Peripatetical Philoso- Apud Euseb. pher in an Epistle to Ptolomy Philometer doth plainly affert prep. Evang. that which was fo much questioned, concerning Demetrius 1.13.

Phalereus.

But whatever the truth of all the particular circumstances be, which I here enquire not after, nor the authority of that Aristeus from whom the story is received, nor whether this translation was made by Jews sent out of Judæa, or by Jews refiding at Alexandria; it sufficeth for our purpose that this translation was made before either the Chaldean Dynasties of Berosus, or the Agyptian of Manetho, were published to the World. In order to which it is necessary to shew in what time this translation was effected; and herein that channel. of tradition which conveys the truth of the thing in one certain course, runs not with so even a stream concerning the exact time of it; all indeed agree that it was about the time of Ptolomæus Philadelphus, but in what years of his reign, is very dubious. Joseph Scaliger who hath troubled the waters to much concerning the particular circumstances of Animad. ad this translation, yet fully agrees that it was done in the time Num. Eufeb.

SeEt. 8.

of 1734.

ad Idol. 17.

Justin. l. 16.

of Ptolomaus Philadelphus; only he contends with Africanus that it should be done in the 132d. Olympiad, which is in the 33d. year of Ptolomaus Philadelphus; but Eusebius and Ferom place it in the very beginning of his reign, which I think is far more probable, and that in the time when Ptolomaus Philadelphus reigned with his Father Ptolomaus Lagi: for fo it is most certain he did for two years before his father's death. By which means the great difficulty of Scaliger concerning Demetrius Phalereus is quite taken off; for Hermippus speaks nothing of Demetrius his being out of favour with Philadelphus V. Scaliger. ib. during his father's life, but that upon his father's death, he was Theocrit. Schol. banished by him, and dyed in his banishment; so that Demetrius might have the overlight of the Library at Alexandria, and Euseb. Chr. gr. be the main instrument of promoting this translation, and vet those things be after true which Hermippus speaks, viz. When Ptolomæus Lagi or Soter was now dead For it stands not to reason that during his father's life Philadelphus should discover his displeasure against Demetrius, it being conceived upon the advice given to his father for preferring the Sons of Arsinoe to the Crown before the Son of Berenice. Most likely therefore it is that this translation might be begun by the means of Demetrius Phalereus in the time of Philadelphus his reigning with his father, but, it may be, not finished till after the death of Soter, when Philadelphus reigned alone. And by this now we can perfectly reconcile that difference which is among the fathers concerning the time when this translation was made. For Irenaus attributes it to the time of Ptolomaus Lagi. Clemens Alexandrinus questions whether in the time of Lagi or Philadelphus; the rest of the Chorus carry it for Philadelphus; but the words of Anatolius in Eusebius cast it fully for both; Hift. Eccl. 1. 7. for there, speaking of Aristobulus, he faith, he was one of the Seventy who interpreted the Scriptures to Ptolomæus Philadelphus and his Father, and dedicated his Commentaries upon the Law to both those Kings. Hac sane omnem scrupulum eximunt, faith Vossius upon producing this testimony, this

.c. 26.

Do Hist. Grac. puts it out of all doubt; and to the same purpose speaks the 1. I. cap. 12.

pag. 380. Sect. 9.

Having thus far cleared the time when the translation of the Scriptures into Greek was made, we shall find our conje-Eture much strengthned, by comparing this with the age of the

learned Jesuite Petavius in his Notes on Epiphanius.

fore-

fore-mentioned Historians, Manetho and Berosus. Manetho we have already made appear to have lived in the time of Ptolomaus Philadelphus, and that, faith Vossius, after the death of Soter. It is evident from what remains of him in Eusebius his Chronica, that he not only flourished in the time of Philadelphus, but writ his history at the special command of Philadelphus, as manifestly appears by the remaining Epistle of Manetho to him, still extant in Eusebius. This command of Phi-chr. Gr. p. 6. ladelphus might very probably be occasioned upon the view of that account, which the Holy Scriptures, being then translated into Greek, did give of the world, and the propagation of mankind; upon which, we cannot imagine but so inquisitive a person as Philadelphus was, would be very earnest to have his curiofity satisfied, as to what the Agyptian Priests (who had boasted so much of antiquity) could produce to confront with the Scriptures. Whereupon the task was undertaken by this Manetho, High-Priest of Heliopolis, whereby those things which the Egyptian Priests had to that time kept secret in their Cloisters, were now divulged and exposed to the judgment of the learned world; but what satisfaction they were able to give inquisitive minds, as to the main Colsulyon, or, matter enquired after, may partly appear by what hath been faid of Manetho already, and by what shall be spoken of his Dynasties afterwards.

But all this will not persuade Kircher; for, whatever Scaliger; nay, what Manetho himself saith to the contrary, he, with the confidence and learning of a Fesuite, affirms, That this Manetho is elder than Alexander the great. For these are his words, Frequens apud priscos historicos Dynastiarum Ægyp- Oedip. Ægyp: tiacarum fit mentio, quarum tamen alium Authorem non habemus To. 1. Synag. I nisi Manethonem Sebennytam, Sacerdotem Agyptium, quem ante c. 9. tempora Alexandri, quicquid dicat Scaliger, in Agypto floruisse comperio. Certainly forme more than ordinary evidence may be expected after so confident an affirmation; but whatever that person be in other undertakings, he is as unhappy a person in Philology, as any that have pretended so much acquaintance with it. One would think, he that had been twenty years, as he tells us himself, courting the Agyptian Mysteries for compassing his Oedipus, should have found some better arguments to prove an affertion of this nature, than merely the testimony

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rites

of Fosephus, the Hebrew book fuchasin, and some Arabick writers, not one of all which do mention the thing they are brought for, viz that Manetho was elder than Alexander. All the business is, they quote him as an ancient Writer; but what then? The Author of the Book Juchasin was Abraham Zachuth, a Jew of Salamancha, who writ in the year of our Lord 1505. and this Book was first printed at Constantinople, 1556. Might not this man then well mention Manetho as an ancient Writer, if he flourished above 1600 years before him, in the time of Ptolomaus Philadelphus? And what if fome Arabick Writers mention him? Are they of fo great antiquity and credit themselves, that it is an evidence Manetho lived in Alexander's time to be praised by them? It would be well, if Kircher, and other learned men, who think the world is grown to fo great stupidity, as to believe every thing to be a jewel which is far fetched, would first affert and vindicate the antiquity and fidelity of their Arabick Authors, fuch as Gelaldinus. Abenephi, and many others, before they expect we should part with our more authentick Records of Hiftory for those fabulous relations which they are so full fraught withall. Were it here any part of my present business, it were an easie matter so to lay open the ignorance, falsity, and fabulousness of those Arabians whom that Author relies so much upon, that he could not be freed from a design to impose upon the world, who makes use of their testimony in matters of ancient times without a Caveat. I know none fit to believe these Arabick Writers as to these things, but those who have faith enough to concost the Rabbins in matter of History. Of whom C. Celsum, l. 2. Origen faith, mirla whi The Isolator The vor midor xi Angor. Who Annot. in Mat. are, as Grotius truly faith, pessimi historia Magistri; nam ex quo patria expulsi sunt, omnis apud illos historia crassis erroribus & fabulis est inquinata, quibus & proinde nibil credendum est, Exercit, ad Ba- nist aliunde testes accederent. And, as If. Casaubon passeth this ron. 16. S. 8. Pharp, but due censure upon them, Rabbinis ubi de Lingua Hebraica agitur & vocis alicujus proprietate, vel aliquo Talmudico instituto, merito à christianis tribui non parum; ubi vero à verbis venitur ad res, aut ad historiam, vel rerum antiquarum veteris populi explicationem, n si falli & decipi volumus, nibil admodum esse illis sidei habendum. Sexcentis argumentis hoc facile pro-

barem h id nunc agerem. And in reference to their ancient

24. 24.

rites as well as history, Joseph Scaliger hath given this verdiet De of them, Manifesta est Judæorum inscitia, qui cum usu veterum Temp. rithum, etiam eorum cognitionem amiserunt, ut multa quæ ad eorum sacra & historiam pertinent, longe melius nos teneamus The same which these very learned persons say of Rabbinical, may with as much truth be faid of these Arabick Writers, in matters of ancient history, which I have here inferted, to shew the reason why I have thought the testimony of either of these two sorts of persons so inconsiderable in the matter of our future discourse; which being historical, and that of the greatest antiquity, little relief is to be expected from either of them in order thereto. But to return to Kircher. It is freely granted, That fosephus, an Authour of credit and age, sufficient to give his opinion in this case, doth very frequently cite Manetho in his Agyptian History; particularly in his learned Books against Appion; but where he doth give the least intimation of Manetho being elder than Alexander, I am yet to feek. But Kircher will not yet leave the matter fo, but undertakes to give an account of the mistake; which is, That there were two Manetho's besides, and both Agyptians, mentioned by Suidas; one a Mendefian, who writ of the Preparation of the Egyptian kind of perfume used by the Agyptian Priests. The other a Diospolitan, who writ some Physiological and Astronomical Treatises, whose works he hears are preserved in the Duke of Florence his Library; and this was he (faith he) who lived in the times of Augustus, whom many by the equivocation of the name have confounded with the ancient Writer of the Egyptian Dynasties. Is it possible so learned a Fesuite should discover so little judgment in so few words? For, first, who ever afferted the Writer of the Dynasties to have lived in the time of Augustus? Yet, secondly, if that Manetho whom Suidas there speaks of, lived in Augufus his time according to Kircher, then it must necessarily follow, that the Compiler of the Dynasties did: for it is evident to any one that looks into Suidas, that he there speaks of the same Manetho, for these are his words: Maves in Dioσπόλεως τ Αίγώπε, η Σεβεννύπες ουσιολομια, &c. Can any thing be more plain than that he here speaks of Manetho Sebennyta, who was the Authour of the Dynasties, though he might write other things besides, of which Suidas there speaks? But Kircher

Kircher very wifely, in translating Suidas his words, leaves out Sessenvitus, which decides the controversie, and makes it clear; that he speaks of the same Manetho of whom we have been discoursing. Thus it still appears that this Manetho is no elder than the time of Ptolomy Philadelphus, which was the thing to be proved.

Sett. 10.

Now for Berofus, although the Chaldeans had occasion enough given them before this time, to produce their Antiquities by the Fews converse with them in Babylon; yet we find this Authour the first who durst adventure them abroad. fuch as they were, in Greek. Now that this Berosus published his History after the time mentioned, I thus prove. Tatianus Affyrius tells us that he writ the Chaldaick History in three Books, and dedicated them to Antiochus, To UT SENEUROV Teity, as it is read in the fragment of Tatianus preserved in Eusebius; but it must be acknowledged that in the Paris edition of Tatiod. Rob. Steph. anus, as well as the Ball, it is thus read, nal 'Anigardesy repνως, 'Ανθιόχω τω μεθ' αυτόν τείτω, here it relates to the third from Alexander, in the other, to the third from Seleucus; Now if we reckon the third so as to take the person from whom we reckon in, for the first, according to the reading in Eusebius, it falls to be Antiochus called seds, according to the o-V. Scal. de E- ther reading it falls to be Antiochus Soter; for Seleucus succeeded Alexander in the Kingdom of Syria; Antiochus Soter, Seleucus; Antiochus sees, Antiochus Soter. But according to either of these readings, our purpose is sufficiently proved. For Antiochus Soter began to reign in Syria in the fixth year of Ptol. Philadelphus in Agypt; Antiochus 300, succeeded him in the 22d. year of Philadelphus; now the soonest that the History of Berosus could come forth, must be in the reign of Antiochus Soter, which according to our accounts is some competent time after the translation of the Scripture into Greek; but if it were not till the time of Antiochus 3005, we cannot but imagine that the report of the account of ancient times in the Scriptures was sufficiently divulged before the publishing of this History of Berosus; and, it may be, Berosus might somewhat sooner than others understand all transactions at Alexandria, because the place of his chief residence was where Ptolomy Philadelphus was born, which was in the Isle of Co. But Vosfius goes another way to work, to prove the time of Berosus, which

mend. Temp. l. 5. p. 392.

Prap. Evang.

l. 10. p. 289.

De hift. Grac. l. 1. c. 13.

which is this. He quotes it out of Pliny that Berofus recor- Plin, bift, not. ded the History of 480. years, which, faith he, must be rec- 1. 7. 6. 56. koned from the æra of Nabonasser. Now this began in the fecond year of the 8th. Olympiad, from which time if we reckon 480 years, it falls upon the latter end of Antiochus Soter: and so his History could not come out before the 22d. of Ptolomy Philadelphus, or very little before. Thus we have made it evident, That these two great Historians are younger even than the translation of the Bible into Greek, by which it appears probable that they were provoked to publish their fabulous Dynasties to the world. And so much to shew the insufficiency of the Chaldean History, as to the account of ancient times: Which we shall conclude with the censure of Strabo. a grave and judicious Authour, concerning the antiquities of the Persians, Medes, and Syrians, which, saith he, have not obtained any great credit in the world, Da Thu & or precion ando- Geogr. l. 11. ma no peromodian, because of the simplicity and fabulousness of their Historians. From hence we see then that there is no great credibility in those Histories, which are impeached of falshood by the most grave and judicious of Heathen Writers.

H 2

CHAP.

CHAP. IV.

The defect of the Gresian History.

That manifested by three evident arguments of it. 1. The fabulousness of the Poetical age of Greece. The Antiquity of Poetry. Of Orpheus and the ancient Poets. Whence the Poetical Fables borrowed. The advancement of Poetry and Idolatry together in Greece. The different censures of Strabo and Eratosthenes concerning the Poetical age of Greece; and the reasons of them. 2. The eldest Historians of Greece are of suspected credit. Of Damastes, Aristeus, and others; of most of their eldest Historians we have nothing left but their names, of others only the subjects they treated of, and some fragments. 3. Those that are extant either confess their Ignorance of eldest times, or plainly discover it. Of the first fort are Thucydides and Plutarch; several evidences of the Grecians Ignorance of the true original of Nations. Of Herodotus and his mistakes; the Greeks Ignorance in Geography discovered, and thence their insufficiency as to an account of ancient History.

DEscend we now to the History of Greece; to see whether the Metropolis of Arts and Learning can afford us Sect. 1. any account of ancient times, that may be able to make us in the least question the account given of them in sacred Scriptures. We have already manifested the defect of Greece as to letters and ancient records, but yet it may be pretended that her Historians by the excellency of their wits and fearching abroad into other Nations, might find a more certain account of ancient times, than other Nations could obtain. no body, who is any thing acquainted with the Grecian humour, but will fay they were beholding to their wits for most of their Histories; they being some of the earliest writers of Romances in the world, if all fabulous narrations may bear that name. But laying afide at prefent all their Poetick Mythology, as it concerns their Gods, (which we may have occafion to enquire into afterwards) we now examine only their credibility, where they pretend to be most historical. Yet how far

far they are from meriting belief even in these things, will appear to any that shall consider; First, That their most ancient Writers were Poetical and apparently fabulous. Secondly, That their eldest Historians are of suspected credit even among themselves. Thirdly, That their best Historians either discover or confess abundance of ignorance as to the history of ancient times. First, That their first Writers were Poetical, and apparently fabulous: Strabo undertakes to prove that Profe is only an imitation of Poetry, and so Poetry must needs be first written. For, faith he, at first Poetry was only in request, afterwards in imitation of that, Cadmus, Pherecydes and Hecataus writ their Geogr. 1, 1. bistories, observing all other laws of Poetry, but only the measures of it; but by degrees Writer; began to take greater liberty, and so brought it down from that lofty strain it was then in, to the form now in use: as the Comical strain is nothing else but a depressing the sublimer style of Tragedies. This he proves because addy did anciently fignifie the same with pedicar; for Poems were only rope usuariandioi, Lessons fit to be sung among them; thence, faith he, is the original of the farladian, &c. For these were those Poems which were sung in salsow when they held a branch of Laurel in their hands, as Plutarch tells us they were wont to do Homer's Iliads; others were fung to the Harp, as Hefied's "ega: besides, saith Strabo, that Prose is called & medos xoy &, symbol. argues that it is only a bringing down of the higher strain in use before. But however this were in general, as to the Grecians, it is evident that Poetry was first in use among them; for in their elder times when they first began to creep out of Barbarism, all the Philosophy and Instruction they had, was from their Poets, and was all couched in verse; which Plutarch not only confirms, but particularly instanceth in Orpheus, Hesiod, Parmenides, Xenophanes, Empedocles and Thales; and hence Horace de arte Poetica, of the ancient Poets before Homer,

De Pyth. Orac.

- fuit bæc sapientia quondam Publica privatis secernere, sacra profanis: Concubitu prohibere vago: dare jura maritis: Oppida moliri: leges incidere ligno. Sic honor & nomen divinis vatibus atque Carminibus venit.

Qualt. Rom.

SeEt. 2.

c. 14.

Differt. in Hes. From hence as Heinsus observes, the Poets were anciently called cap. 6.

Add 12401; and the ancient speeches of the Philosophers containing matters of marging were called formers? I have of

Addonator; and the ancient speeches of the Philosophers containing matters of morality, were called Loquan if Lowa, of which many are mentioned in their lives by Diogenes Laertins; in the same sence were Carmina anciently used among the Latines for precepts of morality, as in that collection of them, which goes under the name of Cato, (which some think to be an ancient piece, but with a false inscription, but Boxhornius thinks it to be of some Christians doing in the decay of the Roman Empire,) Si Deus est animus, nobis ut Carmina dicunt. Carmina, saith Heinsius, i. e. dista Philosophorum; cansa est, quia dista illa brevia, quibus sententias suas de Deo deque

reliquis includebant, à Sousva dicebant, i. e. Carmina.

When Poetry came first into request among the Grecians, is somewhat uncertain; but this is plain and evident, that the intention of it was not meerly for instruction, but as Strabo expressent it, δημαγωγείν το seg. τηγείν το πλήθη, the more gently to draw the people on to Idolatry. For as he saith, it is impossible to persuade women and the promiscuous multitude toreligion by

Geogr. l. 1. p. 13. meer dry reason or Philosophy, and Sei no Sa Seson Samorias Teto d' in aven pudomoitas no regardias; but for this, saith he, there is need of superstition, and this cannot be advanced without some fables and wonders. For, saith he, the Tunderbolts, Shields, Tridents, Serpents, Spears attributed to the Gods, are meer fables, and so is all the ancient Theology; but the Governours of the Commonwealth made use of these things, the better to awe the filly multitude, and to bring them into better order. I cannot tell how far this might be their end, fince these things were not brought in so much by the several Magistrates, as by the endeavour of particular men, who thought to raise up their own efteem among the vulgar by fuch things, and were imployed by the great deceiver of the world as his grand instruments to advance Idolatry in it. For which we are to consider, that although there were gross Ignorance, and consequently Superstition enough in Greece before the Poetick age of it, yet their Superstitious and Idolatrous worship was not so licked and brought into form, as about the time of Orphews, from whom the Poetick age commenceth: who was as great an instrument of setting up Idelatry, as Apollonius was afterwards of restoring it, being both persons of the highest esteem and veneration among the beathen.

heathen, Much about the same time did those live in the world who were the first great promoters of Superstition and Poetry, as Melamous, Musaus, Arion Methymnaus, Amphion of Thebes, and Eumolous Thrax, none of whom were very far distant from the time of Orpheus. Of whom Clemens Alexandrinus thus foeaks, perominal meoning rummalulus & flor in texum mi Progreptic, p.3. 2011 τεία - τες ανθεώπες δτί τα είδωλα χαιραρωγέσι πεώτοι. Thefe under a pretence of Musick and Poetry corrupting the lives of men, did by a kind of artificial Magick draw them on to the practice of Idolatry. For the novelty and pleasingness of Mufick and Poetry did presently infinuate its felf into the minds of men, and thereby drew them to a venerable esteem both of the persons and practices of those who were the Authours of them. So Conon in Photius tells us that Orpheus was exceed- Phot. Biblioth. ingly acceptable to the people for his skill in Musick, which Cod. 186. Set. the Thracians and Macedonians were much delighted with: 45. From which arose the Fable of his drawing trees and wild beafts after him, because his Musick had so great an influence upon the civilizing that people, who were almost grown rude through Ignorance and Barbarism: and so Horace explains it,

Sylvestres homines sacer, interpresque Deorum, Cædibus & victu fædo deterruit Orpheus, Dictus ob hoc lenire Tigres rapidosque Leones.

Ep. ad Pifon.

This Orpheus by Mythologists is usually called the son of Calliope, but may with better reason be called the father of the whole Chorus of the Muses, than the son of one of them, since Pindar calls him range and 30 and 70 hn Tzetzes tells us he was called the fon of Calliope, is nannovias mountains every's x Schol. in Heft-Throw The sis Tes Sees, as the inventor of Poetical elegancy, and od. p. 8. the sacred Hymns which were made to the Gods. (Which the old Romans called Assamenta; and Justin Martyr calls him Paranes. 1. of MONUSconf @ Meditor Side suchor, the first teacher of Polytheism and Idolatry.

For this Orpheus having been in Egypt, as Paulanias, Dio- Sect. 3. dorus, and Artapanus in Eusebius all confess, he brought Paus. Eliac. 2. from thence most of the Magical rites and superstitious cu-Diod.bibl.lib.1. stoms in use there, and set them up among the Grecians; so Euseb. Prap.

then

Diodorus acknowledgeth in the fame place; and is likewise evident by what Aristophanes faith in his Bareagos,

Att. 4. Sc. 2.

'Oposi's who is Texeta's o' nuiv naled en Es Φόνων τ' απέχεδαι.

Orpheus first instructed them in the sacred mysteries, and to abstain from slaughter: which is to be understood of the Badvoia. the killing of beasts in sacrifice, which probably was in use among them before, as a remainder of ancient tradition, till Orpheus brought his Ægyptian doctrine into request among them. The mysteries of Osiris, faith Diodorus, were transplanted into Greece under the name of Dionysius or Bacchus, and Isis under Ceres or Magna Mater, and the punishment and pleasures after this life from the rites of fepulture among them; Charon's wafting of fouls from the lake Acherusia in Agypt, over which they were wont to fend the dead bodies. Paufanias tells us, that the Spartans derived the worship of Ceres Cthonia from Or-Corinth. p. 72. pheus, and the Eginatæ the worship of Hecate, Besides which V.C. Rhod. Ant. he instituted new rites and mysteries of his own, in which the Leet. 1.15. p.9. initiated were called 'OggewTenesul', and required a most folemn oath from all of them never to divulge them, which was after observed in all those profane mysteries which in imitation of these were set up among the Greeks. Strabo thinks the mysteries of Orpheus were in imitation of the old Cotyttian and Bendidian mysteries among the Thracians; but Herodotus with more probability parallels them and the Dionysian with the Egyptian, from which we have already feen that Orpheus derived his; who is conceived by Georgius Cedrenus and Timotheus in Eusebius, to have lived about the time of Gideon the Judge of Israel; but there is too great confusion concerning his age, to define any thing certainly about it. Which ariseth most from the several persons going under his name, of which, besides this, were in all probability two more; the one an Heroick Poet, called by Suidas, Ciconaus, or Arcas, who lived two Ages before Homer, and he that goes under the name of Orpheus, whose Hymns are still extant, but are truly ascribed to Onomacritus the Athenian, by Clemens Alexandrinus, Tatianus Assyrius, Suidas, and others, who flourished in the times of the Pisistratida at Athens. We are like

Lacon. p. 95.

Geogr. 1. 10.

Enterp. p. 134. Ed. H. St.

V. Suidam in Orph.

then to have little relief for finding out of truth in the Poetick Age of Greece, when the main design of the Learning then used was only to insimuate the belief of fables into the

People, and by that to awe them into Idolatry.

If we come lower down to the succeeding Poets, we may find fables increasing still in the times of Homer, Hesiod, and the rest, which made Eratosthenes, a Person of great Judgement and Learning (whence he was called alter Plato, and πένθαθλ (G. and το βητα, because he carried, if not the first, yet the fecond place in all kind of Literature) condemn the ancient Poetry as year's undorogian, a company of old Wives tales, which were invented for nothing but to please filly people, and had no real learning or truth at all in them. For this, though he be sharply censured by Strabo, in his first Book, who undertakes to vindicate the Geography of Homer from the exceptions of Eratosthenes; yet himself cannot but confess that there is a very great mixture of fables in all their Poets, which is, faith he, partly to delight the people, and partly to awe them. For the minds of men being always desirous of novelties, such things do hugely please the natural humours of weak people; especially if there be something in them that is Saumesov if regardles, very strange and wonderfull, it increaseth the delight in hearing it; n'meg & is nav savew pix egv, which draws them on to a desire of hearing more of it. And by this means, faith he, are children first brought on to learning, and all ignorant persons are kept in awe; nay, and the more learned themselves (partly for want of reason and judgment, and partly from the remainder of those impressions which these things made upon them when they were children) cannot shake off that former credulity which they had as to these things. By which discourse of Strabo, though intended wholly by him in vindication of poetick fables, it is plain and evident what great differvice hath been done to truth by them, by reason they had no other Records to preserve their ancient History but these fabulous Writers, and therefore supposing a mixture of truth, and fallhood together, which Strabo contends for; yet what way should be taken to distinguish the true from the false, when they had no other certain Records? and befides, he himself acknowledgeth how hard a matter it is even for wise men to excuss those fabulous narrations out of

Sect. 4.

their

from

their minds, which were infinuated into them by all the advantages which prejudice, cuftom, and educatian could work upon them. Granting then there may be fome truth at the bottom of their fabulous narrations;

Ολ. β. 3. "Ως δ' ότε τὶς χρυσὸν σειχεύελαι ἀς χύρφ ἀνής.

Which may be gilded over with some pleasant tales, as himself compares it; yet how shall those come to know that it is only gilded, that never saw any pure metal, and did always believe that it was what it seemed to be? Had there been any residueur, or touchstone to have differenced between the one and the other, there might have been some way for a separation of them; but there being none such, we must conclude, that the fabulous narrations of Poets instead of making truth more pleasant by their sections, have so adulterated it, that we cannot find any credibility at all in their narrations of elder times, where the truth of the story hath had no other way of convey-

ance but through their fictions.

But though Poets may be allowed their liberty for reprefenting things to the greatest advantage to the palates of their Readers, yet we may justly expect, when men profess to be bistorical, they should deliver us nothing but what upon stri-Etest examination may prove undoubted truth. Yet even this were the Greeks far from; for Strabo himself confesseth of their eldest Historians, Kai of megotos & isoeunoi x quoto pour pegcon, their first Historians both of persons and things were fabulous. Diodorus particularly instanceth in their eldest Historians, as Cadmus Milesus, Hecat aus, and Hellanicus, and condemns them for fabulousness. Strabo condemns Damastes Sigeensis for vanity and fallhood, and wonders at Eratosthenes for making use of him; yet this man is of great antiquity among them, and his testimony used by Authours of good credit, as Dionysius Halicarnasseus, Plutarch, and others. Nay, Pliny professeth to follow him, and so doth Aristeas Proconnesius, in his Arimaspia, which may render the credit of his History very fuspicious; with whom it was a sufficient ground of credibility to any story, That he found it in some Greek Authours. Strabo reckons Damastes with Euemerus Messenius and

Antiphanes Bergius; which latter was so noted a Lyar, that

Geogr. L. v.

Se St. 5.

V. Casaub. in Strab. l. 1. Voss. de hist. Græc. l. 4. c. 5. from him, as Stephanus tells us, Begyailly was used as a Proverb mei mono for, to speak never a word of truth. Aristeas Proconnessus lived Bigyn. in the time of Cyrus, and writ a History of the Arimaspi, in three Books, who feems to have been the Sir John Mandevil of Greece, from his stories of the Arimaspi, with one eye in their foreheads, and their continual fighting with the Gryphens for gold; yet the story was taken upon trust by Herodotus, Pliny, and many others, though the experience of all who have visited those Northern Climats, do sufficiently refute these follies. Strabo saith of this Aristeas, that he was, avie yous el us and, one inferiour to none for juggling, Geogr. 1. 13. which cenfure was probably occasioned by the common story of him, that he could let his foul out of his body when he pleased, and bring it again; yet this Juggler did Celsus pitch on to confront with our bleffed Saviour, as Hierocles did on Apollonius; so much have those been to seek for reason, who

have fought to oppose the doctrine of faith.

But further, what credit can we give to those Historians Sect. 6. who have striven to confute each other, and lay open one anothers falshood to the World. Where was there ever any such dissonancy in the sacred History of Scripture? doth the Writer of one Book discover the weakness of another? do not all the parts so exactly agree, that the most probable suspicion could ever fall into the heart of an Infidel, is, that they were all written by the same person, which yet the series of times manifests to have been impossible? But now, if we look into the ancient Greek Historians, we need no other testimony than themselves to take away their credibility. The Genealogies of Hefiod are corrected by Acufilaus, Acufilaus is condemned by Hellanicus, Hellanicus accused of falshood by Ephorus, Ephorus by Timæus, Timæus by fuch who followed him, as Fose-Appion. l. 1. phus fully shews. Where must we then fix our belief? upon all in common? that is the ready way to believe contradictions: for they condemn one another of falshood. Must we believe one, and reject the rest? but what evidence doth that one give why he should be credited more than the rest? And which is a most irrefragable argument against the Grecian history, their eldest Historians are acknowledged to be the most fabulous; for our only recourse for deciding the controversies among the younger Historians, must be to the elder;

here

here we are further to feek than ever; for the first ages are confessed to be poetical, and to have no certainty of truth in them. So that it is impossible to find out any undoubted certainty of ancient times among the Greek Historians; which will be yet more evident when we add this, That there are very few extant of those Historians, who did carry the greatest name for Antiquity.

Seit. 7.

The highest Antiquity of the Greek Historians doth not much exceed the time of Cyrus and Cambyles, as Vollius hath fully demonstrated in his learned Book, De Historicis Gracis, and therefore I shall spare particular enquiries into their several ages. Only these two things will further clear the insufficieney of the Greek history, as to an account of ancient times: first, That of many of these old Historians we have nothing left but their mere names, without any certainty of what they treated. Such are Sisyphus Cous, Corinnus, Eugeon Samius, Deiochus Proconnesius, Eudemus Parius, Democles Phigaleus, Amelesagoras Chalcedonius, Xenomedes Chius, and feveral others whose names are recorded by feveral Writers, and lifted by Vossius among the Historians, but no evidence what subject of history was handled by them. Secondly, That of those whose not only memories are preserved, but some evidence of what they writ, we have nothing extant till the time of the Persian war. For all that was writ before, is now confumed by time, and fwallowed up in that vast and all-devouring Gulf; in which yet their heads still appear above the waters, to tell us what once they informed the World of. It cannot be denyed, but if many of those ancient Histories were yet remaining, we might probably have some greater light into some matters of fact in the elder times of Greece, which now we are wholly to feek for, unless we think to quench our thirst in the muddy waters of fome fabulous Poets. For what is now become of the antiquities of Ionia and the city Miletus written by Cadmus Milesius, supposed to be the first Writer of History? where lie the Genealogies of Acusilaus Argivus? where is now extant the History of the Gods written by Pherecydes Scyrius, Pythagoras his Master? or the Chronica of Archilochus who flourished about the 20th. Olympiad? or those of Theagenes Rheginus? Where may we hope to meet with Pherecydes Lerius his Attick antiquities, or his Catalogue of Cities and Nations? or Hecatæus his description

description of Asia, and some suppose of Libya and Europe too? or the Originals of Nations and Founders of Cities written by Hellanicus? How may we come by the Persiek, Greek and Ægyptian History of Charon Lampsacenus; the Lydian History of Xanthus Lydius; the Samian Antiquities of Simmias Rhodius; the Corinthian History of Eumelus Corinthius; Panyasis his Antiquities of Greece; the Scythian History of Anacharsis; the Phrygian of Diagoras; the haldaick and Persian of Democritus; the icilian and Italian of Hippys Rheginus; the Telchiniack Hifory of Tele lides? All these are now buried with many more in the rubbift of time, and we have nothing but the meer skeletons of them left to tell us that once fuch persons were, and thought themselves concerned to give the world some account of their being in it. Whereby may be likewise seen the remarkable providence of God, concerning the sacred History, which though of far greater antiquity than any of these, hath furvived them all, and is still preserved with as much purity and incorruption as a Book passing through so many hands

was capable of. But of that in its due place.

But yet if the Greek Historians that are yet extant, were Sect. 8. of more undoubted credit than those that are lost, we might eafily bear with our losing some old stories, if we gained fome authentick history by it accomplished in all its parts: but even this we are far from in the Greek History; for the Historians themselves do either confess their own ignorance of ancient times, or do most palpably discover it, which was the third and last consideration touching the credibility of the Grecian History. That most grave and accurate Historian Thucydides, than whom scarce ever any Grecian discovered more an impartial love to the truth in what he writ, doth not only confess, but largely prove the impossibility of an exact account to be given of the times preceding the Peloponnesian War, in the very entrance into his History: For, faith he, the matter preceding that time, cannot now through the length of time be accurately discovered or found out by us. All that he could find in the ancient state of Greece was a great deal of Confusion, unquiet stations, frequent removals, continual piracies, and no setled form of Commonwealth. What certain account can be then expected of those times, when a most judicious Writer, even of Athens its self, acknowledg-

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eth fuch a Chaos in their ancient History! And Plutarch, a later Author indeed, but scarce behind any of them, if we believe Taurus in A. Gellius, for learning and prudence, dares not, we see, venture any further back than the time of Thefeus; for before that time, as he compares it, as Geographers in their Maps, when they have gone as far as they can, fill up the empty space with some unpassable mountains, or frozen feas or devouring fands; so those who give an account of elder times, are fain to insert reparted nx reguna, some wonderfull and Tragical stories, which (as he faith) have neither any truth nor certainty in them. Thus we see those who were best able to judge of the Greek Antiquities, can find no fure footing to stand on in them; and what basis can we find for our faith, where they could find fo little for their knowledge? And those who have been more daring and venturous than these persons mentioned, what a Labyrinth have they run themselves into? how many confusions and contradictions have they involved themselves in? fometimes writing the passages of other Countries for those of Greece, and at other times so confounding times, persons and places, that one might think they had only a defign upon the understandings of their readers, to make them play at Blind-mans-buff in fearching for the Kings of Greece.

Sett. 9.

But as they are so confused in their own History, so they are as ignorant and fabulous when they dare venture over their own thresholds and look abroad into other Countries; we certainly owe a great part of the lamentable ignorance of the true original of most Nations to the pitifull account the Greek Authours have given of them; which have had the fortune to be entertained in the world with fo much effeem and veneration, that it hath been thought learning enough to be acquainted with the account which they give of Nations. Which I doubt not hath been the great reason so many fabulous relations, not only of nations but persons and feveral animals never existing in the world, have met with fo much entertainment from the less inquisitive world. The Greek Writers, it is evident, took up things upon trust as much as any people in the world did, being a very weak and inconsiderable Nation at first, and afterwards the knowledge they had was generally borrowed from other Nations, which the the wife men only fuited to the temper of the Greeks, and fo made it more fabulous than it was before. As it was certainly the great defect of the natural philosophy of the Greeks. (as it hath been ever fince in the world) that they were fo ready to form Theories upon some principles or hypotheses, which they only received by Tradition from others, without fetching their knowledge from the experiments of nature; and to these they suited all the phanomena of nature; and what was not suitable was rejected as monstrous and anomalous: fo it was in their History wherein they had some fabulous hypotheses they took for granted without enquiring into the truth and certainty of them, and to these they suit whatever light vey gained in after-times of the state of Foreign Nations, which hath made Truth and Antiquity wrestle so much with the corruptions which eat into them through the pride and ignorance of the Greeks. Hence they have always fuited the History of other Nations with the account they give of their own; and where nothing could ferve out of their own History to give an account of the original of other Nations, they (who were never backward at fictions) have made a Founder of them suitable to their own language. The truth is, there is nothing in the world usefull or beneficial to mankind, but they have made shift to find the Authour of it among themselves. If we enquire after the original of Agriculture, we are told of Ceres and Triptolemus; if of pasturage, we are told of an Arcadian Pan; if of mine, we presently hear of a Liber Pater: if of Iron instruments, then who but Vulcan? if of Musick, none like to Apollo. If we press them. then with the History of other Nations, they are as well provided here: if we enquire an account of Europe, Asia or Libya; for the first we are told a fine story of Cadmus his fifter. for the second of Prometheus his mother of that name, and for the third of a daughter of Epaphus. If we are yet so curious as to know the original of particular Countries; then Italia must find its name from a Calf of Hercules, because ANG in Greek will fignifie some such thing; Sardinia and Africa must be from Sardos and Afer two sons of Hercules; but yet if these will not serve, Hercules shall not want for children to people the world; for we hear of Scythes, Galatas, Lydus, fome other fons of his, that gave names to Scythia, Lydia, Galatia; Galatia; with the same probability that Media had its name from Medea, and Spain and Lustrania from Pan and Lusus. two companions of Bacchus. If Fersia want a Founder, they have one Perseus an Argive ready for it; if Syria, Babylonia and Arabia want reasons of their names, the prodigal Greeks will give Apollo three fons, Syrus, Babylon and Arabs, rather than they shall be heretical Acephalists. This vanity of theirs was universal, not confined to any place or age, but as any Nation or People came into their knowledge, their Gods were not so decrepit, but they might father one son more upon them, rather than any Nation should be filia populi, and want a father. Only the grave Athenians thought fcorn to have any father affigned them; their only ambition was to be accounted Aborigines & genuini terra, to be the eldest sons of their Teeming mother the earth, and to have been born by the same equivocal generation that Mice and Frogs are from the impregnated flime of the earth. Are we not like to have a wonderfull account of ancient times from those who could arrogate to themselves so much knowledge from such flender and thin accounts of the Originals of people which they gave, and would have the world to entertain with the greatest veneration upon their naked words? Have we not indeed great reason to hearken to those who did so frequently discover their affection to Fables, and manifest their ignorance when ever they venture upon the History of other Nations?

Sect. 10.

The truth is, Herodotus himself (whom Tully calls the Father of History, which title he deserves at least in regard of antiquity, being the eldest of the extant Greek Historians) hath stood in need of his Compurgators, who yet have not been able to acquit him of fabulousness, but have sought to make good his credit by recrimination, or by making it appear that Herodotus did not fully believe the stories he tells, but took them upon trust himself, and so delivers them to the world. Some impute it to the ingenuity of Herodotus, that he calls his books of History by the name of the Muses, on purpose to tell his Readers they must not look for meer History in him, but a mixture of such relations, which though not true, might yet please and entertain his Readers. Though others think they were not so inscribed by himself, but

but the names were given to them by the Greeks from the admiration his History had among them. However this were, this we are certain, that Herodotus was not first suspected of falshood in these latter ages of the world, but even among the Greeks themselves there have been found some that would undertake to make good that charge against him. For so Suidas tells us of one Harpecration Ælius, who writ a book on purpose to discover the falshood of Herodotus, neel is nala sudae The Head on ispelar. Plutarch his Books are well known of the spight or malignity of Herodotus, but the occasion of that is fufficiently known likewise, because Herodotus had given no very favourable character of Plutarch's Countrey. Strabo Geogr. 1. 17. likewise seems to accuse Herodotus much of nugacity and mixing prodigious fables with his History; but, I confess, observing the grounds on which Plutarch infifts against Herodotus, I am very prone to think that the ground of the great pique in some of the Greek Writers against Herodotus, was, that he told too many tales out of School, and had discovered too much of the Infancy of Greece, and how much the Grecians borrowed of the Ægyptian superstitions: which Platarch expresly speaks of, that Herodotus was too much led aside, F Aigumiw analo- De Herod. Mal. νείαις κι μυθολογίαις τὰ σεμνόταλα κι άγνόταλα τη Ελλίωικών ίε- p. 857. . εων ανατεέπων. Although therefore Herodotus may not be much to blame in the things which the Grecians most charge him with, yet those who favour him most cannot excuse his palpable mistakes in some things, and ignorance in others. C. Appion. l. I. Fosephus thinks he was deceived by the Agyptian Priests in Canon. Isagog. things relating to the state of their affairs, of which Fos. Sca- 1.3. liger gives many accounts; either, faith he, the persons who gave him his intelligence were ignorant themselves; or else, like true Agyptians, they were cunning enough, but imposed upon Herodotus being a stranger and unacquainted with their artifices; or else he did not understand his Interpreter, or was deceived by him; or lastly, Herodotus might have so much of a Grecian in him, as to adulterate the true History with some fables of his own; wherefore he rather adheres to Manetho than Herodotus as to the Agyptian History: who yet elsewhere (I will not fay with what constancy to himself) vouchsafes him this Nol. ad num. high elogium, that he is, Scrinium originum Græcarum & Bar-Euseb. 1572. bararum, auctor à doctis nunquam deponendus.

Sest. 11.

Hift. 1.2. c.4.

It cannot be denyed but a great deal of very usefull History may be fetched out of him; yet who can excuse his 1enorance, when he not only denies there is an Ocean compassing the Land, but condemns the Geographers for afferting it? Unless this might be any plea for his ignorance in Geography, that he had fo many great names after him guilty of the fame: Witness Aristotle's suspicion that the Indies should be joyned to Europe about the Straights, where they feigned Hercules his pillars to be. And the Thereans ignorance where any fuch place as Libya was, when the Oracle bid them plant a Colony there. Would it not have been worth ones while to have heard the great noise the Sun used to make every night when he doused his head in the Ocean, as none of the most ignorant Greeks imagined? And to have feen the Sun about Hercules his pillars to be a bundred times bigger than he appeared to them, as they commonly fansied. Was not Alexander, think we, well tutoured in his Cosmography by his Master Aristotle. Hist. Alexand. when he writ word to his Mother, he had found out the head of Nilus in the East Indies? as Arrian relates the story. No wonder then his fouldiers should mistake the mountain Paropamisus in the Indies, for Caucasus near Colchis, when even their learned men thought Colchis the utmost boundary of the World on that fide, as Hercules his pillars on this. What a lamentable account then were they able to give of the most ancient times, who were so ignorant of the state of the world in their own time, when Learning was in its height in Greece. and frequent discoveries daily made of the world, by the wars which were made abroad! Eratosthenes confesseth the Grecians were ignorant of a great part of Afia, and the Northern parts of Europe before Alexander's expedition; and Strabo confesseth as much of the Western parts of Europe till the Roman expeditions thither. Palus Maotis and Colchis, faith he were not fully known till the time of Mithridates, nor Hyrcania, Bactriana, and Scythia, till the Parthian wars. Eratosthenes mentions some who thought the Arabian Sea to be only a Lake; and it further argues their ignorance in Geography, that the later Geographers always correct the errors of the elder, as Ptolomy doth Marinus, Eratosthenes those before him, Hipparcus Eratosthenes, and Strabo not only both them, but Eudoxus, Ephorus, Dicarchus, Polybius, Posidonius, and almost all

Geogr. 1. I.

1. 6.

all that had writ before him. I insist on these things, not that I would destroy the credibility of any humane history. where the Authours are guilty of any mistakes (for that were to take away the credit of all humane History) but to shew how insufficient those Histories are to give us a certain account of the original of Nations, who were so unacquainted with the state of those Nations which they pretended to give an account of. For where there is wanting divine revelation (which was not pretended by any Greek Historians; and if it had, had been easily refuted) there must be supposed a full and exact knowledge of all things pertaining to that which they pretend to give an account of; and if they discover apparent defect and insufficiency (which hath been largely manifested as to them, in the precedent discourse) we have ground to deny the credibility of those Histories upon the account of fuch defect and infufficiency. So much then will abundantly fuffice for the making good the first argument against the credibility of profane histories, as to the account which they give of ancient times, different from the Word of God.

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CHAP. V.

The general uncertainty of Heathen Chronology.

The want of credibility in Heathen History further proved from the uncertainty and confusion in their accounts of ancient times; that discovered by the uncertain form of their years. An enquiry into the different forms of the Ægyptian years; the first of thirty Days, the second of four Months; of both instances given in the Ægyptian history. Of the Chaldean accounts, and the first Dynasties mentioned by Berosus, how they may be reduced to probability. Of the Ægyptian Dynasties. Of Manetho. Reasons of accounting them fabulous, because not attested by any credible authority, and rejected by the best Historians. The opinion of Scaliger and Vossius, concerning their being cotemporary, propounded and rejected with reasons against it. Of the ancient division of Ægypt into Nomi or Provinces, and the number of them against Vossius and Kircher.

THE next thing to manifest how little there is of credibility in the account of ancient times, reported by the hi-Sect. I. stories of heathen Nations, is, the uncertainty, confusion and ambiguity in the account which they give of those times. If we suppose them not at all defective as to their records, if yet we find the account given so perplexed, ambiguous and confused, that we can find no certainty at all of the meaning of it, we have very little reason to entertain it with any certain assent unto it. Now this will be made evident by these things. 1. The uncertainty of their Chronology, whereon their whole account depends. 2. The multitude of Impostures taken for ancient Histories. 3. The uncertain meaning of these Characters wherein their ancient Histories were preserved. I begin with the great uncertainty of the heathen Chronology, which will be manifested by two things; first, the uncertain form of their years: secondly, the want or uncertainty of their sannyula, or certain fixed Epocha's from which to derive their account of ancient times. First, the uncertain form of their years; this of it self is sufficient to destroy the credibility of their accounts of antiquity, if it be

manifested that they had different forms of years in use among them; and it be uncertain to which to refer their accounts

they give; for if years be fometimes Lunar, fometimes Solar, and fometimes but of thirty days, fometimes of four Months, fometimes of three hundred and fixty days, sometimes three hundred fixty five, fometimes four times three hundred fixty five in their tetraeteris, sometimes eight times in their offaeteris. fometimes more, what certainty can we possibly have which of them to fix their accounts to? Especially when they only give them in general, and never tell us which of them they mean, which may make it shrewdly suspicious that their intent is only to impose on our understandings, and not to deal fairly and truly with us. We shall therefore so much explain the different form of their years, as thereby to shew what uncertainties we are left to by them: Where we meddle not with their Tropical and Astronomical years, but chiefly those which were in civil use among the several Nations we speak to. A year is nothing else but a System of days, and is therefore capable of as great varity, as days are in being joyned together; but usually there were some other lesser. Systems of days than those which are called years, out of which the other doth result. Such is the Emmanusery, or the week, which, as Toleph Scaliger faith, was res omnibus Orientis populis ab ultima De Emendat. usque antiquitate usitata; a thing in continual use among the Eaftern Nations, though it be but of late reception into the parts of Europe, and no elder than Christianity among them. Among the Romans was used an out in huegov, which was for the fake of the Nundinæreturning every ninth day. The Mexicans as Scaliger tells us, reckon all by a reconsidencinuegov, a System of thirteen days. Next to these were their Months, which were either Lunar or Solar. The Lunar were either from the Moon's return to the same point of the Zodiack again, called recios of oralling, which was less than twenty eight days; but this was of no use in civil computations; or else from one conjunction of the Moon with the Sun to another, which was called oivos & or life from the first phases of the Moon, the second day after its coitus, called odois and drongeros oznivns; fome; as the Grecians, reckoned their Lunar months from the coitus, as Scaliger proves out of Vitruvius; others from the phases, as some Eastern Nations did; as the Jews began their observation of the New Moons from the first phasis or appearance of her after the coitus. The Solar months were either natural,

fuch.

fuch as were defined by the Sun's passage from one sign of the Zodiack to another; or civil, whereby the months were equally divided into 30 days apiece, as in the Grecian and Agyp-

tian year.

Saturn. l. I.

Sect. 2.

. 23.

. 2. 6. 12.

Biblioth I. I.

Having thus far feen of what the year confifts, we now proceed to shew that the ancient Nations did not observe one constant certain form of year among them, but had several in use, to which their accounts may be referred. And because the Agyptians are supposed to have been best skilled as to the form of the year, according to that of Macrobius, Anni certus modus apud solos semper Ægyptios fuit: We shall particularly demonstrate the variety of years in use among them: By which we shall fee what great uncertainty there is in their accounts of their Dynasties. For first it is evident that the time of 30 days was among the ancient Agyptians accounted a year, for which we have the testimony of Plutarch in Numa. i unviaio lu o criavios Era Terpopuluo; The Agyptians at first had a year confifting of one month, and after of four: And this, Gen. Dier. 1. 2. if we believe Alexander ab Alexandro, was the year most frequently in use among them. So Varro in Lastantius gives an account of the great Age of some men in ancient times. DeOrigin.error. who are supposed to have lived a 1000 years; Ait enim apud Ægyptios pro annis menses haberi, ut non Solis per 12 signa circuitus faciat annum, sed Luna quæ orbem illum signiferum 30 dierum spacio illustrat. It is then evident that this year of thirty days was in use among the Agyptians; the only scruple is whether it was used in their facred accounts or no; and that it was, we have a pregnant testimony in Plutarch, in the forecited place; speaking of the Agyptians great pretence to antiquity, he gives this account of it; TANDO aungavor exten οπ ταις γενεαλογίαις καταφέρεστο, α τε δο τες μπους είς ετών αειθμών πθέμθροι. They reckon an infinite number of years in their accounts, because they reckon their months instead of years.

According to this computation, it will be no difficult matter to reduce the vast accounts of the Agyptian antiquity to some proportion, and to reconcile their exorbitant Dynasties with fobriety and truth, especially as to the account given of them by Diodorus Siculus; for fo Diodorus gives in their accounts, that the Gods and Hero's raigned in Agypt for the space of near 18000 years, and the last of them was Orus the Son of Isis:

From

From the reign of men in Ægypt he reckons about 9500 years to the time (if we admit of Facob. Capellus his correction of πεντακοσων for πενταμιωλίων in Diodorus) with his entrance into Egopt, which was in the 180 Olympiad. Now as the aforesaid learned Authour observes, Diodorus came into Ægypt,
A. M. 3940. V. C. 694. the mortal men then had reigned in Exot. A. M. Ægypt 9500 years, which taking it for these Lunar years of 30 1682. days, makes of Julian years 780. the Hero's and Gods 18000 months, that is of Julian years 1478? from these two summs together are gathered 2258 years, which being deducted from the year of the world 3940, falls in the year of the world 1682 about which time Mifraim, who was the great historical Ofiris of Agypt (so called by a light variation of his former name) might be well supposed to be born; for that was in the year of Noah 630; and so Orus might be born, who was the Son of Ofiris, about the year of the world 1778. Between whose time and Alexander the great his Conquest of Ægypt, the Agyptians, as the same Diodorus tells us, reckon little less than 23000 years: Now according to this computation of 30 days for a year, we may reconcile this to truth too; for from 1778 to 3667 of the world, which falls upon the 417 year of Nabonassar, there is an interval of 1889 years, which makes of these Lunar years of 30 days, saith Capellus, 22996 and 15 days, which comes very near, if not altogether, up to the Agyptian Computation: So when the Agyptians, according to Diodorus.make no less than 10000 years distance between their Hercules and Hercules Baotius, the Son of Alcmena, it must be understood of these Lunar years; for granting what the Agyptians fav. that Hercules Baotius lived but one generation before the Trojan war, and so his time to fall out about 2783, reckoning now backward from thence, and deducting from that year of the world 10000 months of 20 days, or Julian years 831, and 130 days, the time of the Agyptian Hercules will fall about the first year of the world, 1962. about which time we may well suppose him to live or die. And according to this computation we are to understand what the Agyptians told Herodotus, that from their first King or Priest of Vulcan, till the time of Sethoes (in whose time Sennacherib attempted the Conquest of Egypt) that there had been passed 241. Generations, and as many Kings and High-Priests, and 11340 years, reckoning

reckoning three Generations to make up a Century. But now if we understand this prodigious computation according to this form of years, we may suspect the Egyptians of an intention to deceive Herodotus and the credulous Greeks, but vet not impeach them of direct falshood, it being thus reconcilable to truth. For according to this account 100 years makes 3000 days, and a Generation 1000; fo many days the Kings or Priests of Vulcan may be allowed to reign; fo 340 Generations of 1000 days apiece, make up 240000 days, to which, if we add the 200 days which Sethos had now reigned upon Sennacherib's invasion, we have 340200 days, which makes up of these years of 20 days apiece 11340, which is the number assigned by Herodotus: Jacobus Capellus thinks the Epocha from whence these years are to reckoned, is Exotic. p. 198. from A. M. 2350, when Mephres began to reign in Agypt, from whence if we number these 340200 days, or 11240 monthly years, which makes up of Julian years 931, and 152 days, the number falls A. M. 2282; about which time in probability Sennacherib invaded Ægypt. Thus we fee by making use of those Lunar years, that it is possible to reconcile fome of the Ægyptian extravagant accounts to some probability and confiftency with truth; but however we owe very little thanks to the Ægyptians for it, who deliver these things in grofs, without telling us which years they mean, and thereby evidence their intent to deceive all who have fo little wit as to be deceived by them.

Sect. 3.

Hift. facr. &

L. I.

Polybift. c. 3.

1. 12. 6. 10.

L. I. Biblioth.

The next kind and form of the Ægyptian year, was that which consisted of four equal months, amounting to 120 days; the use of this kind of year among them is attested by Plutarch in the fore-cited place, and by Diodorus, who gives an account of this kind of year among the Ægyptians. Solinus feems to mention this as the only year in request among the Ægyp-De'Civit. Dei, tians: and fo S. Austin. Perhibentur Ægyptii quondam tam breves annos habuisse ut quaternis mensibus finirentur. This renders then the Ægyptians accounts yet more uncertain, and only leaves us to guess with the greatest probability of reason, what form of year was meant by them in their Computations. So when Diodorus speaks so much in favour of the old Ægyptian Kings and Laws, and produceth this from the Ægyptian Priests, as the best evidence of the excellent temper of their GovernGovernment, that they had Kings of their own Nation for the space of 4700 years, till the time of Cambyses his inroad into Agypt, which was in the third year of the 62 Olympiad. Now besides the apparent contradiction of these accounts to the other already explained, if we take them in gross, as the Ægyptians give them, it is evident this can be no otherwise true, than by taking these accounts in that form of years now mentioned by us. For these 4700 years, taking them for 120 days apiece, make up of Julian years 1544, which being deducted from the year of the world 3475, which was the time when Cambyses invaded Ægypt, the remainder is A. M. 1921, about which time we may fix the death of Orus, from whom their proper Kings commenced. And of De Idolat. 1. 1. these years Vossius tells us we are to understand what they re- 6.28. port of the long lives of their ancient Kings, when they attribute to each of them the space of 300 years, as when they attribute a 1000, and more to their eldest Kings, we are to understand them of simple Lunar years of 30 days, by which these Gigantick measures of the term of their lives, may without the help of Procrustes be cut short according to the proportion of mens ordinary age in those eldest times. So when Diodorus reckons from the death of Proteus to his own time A.M. 2940, 3400 years, it must be understood of these years of four equal months; for so those 2400 years make up of fulian years 1117, which being deduced from 3940, the remainder is 2822, about which year of the world Proteus may be suppofed to live, which was about the time of the Judges in Israel.

Neither was this only the Ægyptians way, but in probability the ancient Chaldeans observed the same, which may be a ground likewise of those unmeasurable accounts among them in their first Dynasties, as is evident in the Fragments of Abydenus and Apollodorus out of Berosus, where the times of their first Kings are reckoned not by years, but \(\Sigma_{eq}\), Notego, and \(\Sigma_{eq}\); now according to them every \(\Sigma_d g \Gamma\) contained \$2600 years, Neig G 600, Sa C G 60. Now who can imagine that Alorus and the ten Kings from him to Xisuthrus should reign 120 Sari as their computation is, which reckoning for every Saros 3600 years, makes up 422000 years? A very fair sum for the Chaldean Dynasties before the time of Xisuthrus by whom in probability Noah was by them understood. There have been

Sect. 4

only

only two ways thought on of dealing with these computations: either rejecting them as wholly fabulous, and founded on no evidence or Records of History, as we have seen already; only they might retain (being so near the place of the Settlement of Noah and his posterity after the flood) the memory not only of the flood (of which it is evident they had feveral remainders preserved in their traditions) but likewise of the Ages of men preceding the flood, wherein they were right, reckoning from Alorus the first to Xisuthrus, i.e. from Adam to Noah, ten Generations; but as to the names of those ten persons, and the times they lived in, being wholly ignorant through the unfaithfulness of tradition, they took their liberty not only of coyning names, but of fetting what Age to them they pleafed themselves. And to this purpose Scaliger observes that some of their first Kings are reckoned before the flood, which faith he, is denied by Georgius Syncellus without any shew of reason. Thus far then we may admit of the Chaldeans Dynasties as to some part of the tradition, but rejecting their names and computations as fabulous. The other way of explaining thefe Dynasties, is by the several ways of computation among them; For the learned Monks, Panodorus, and Anianus, understand those vast summs, not of years, but days, and so make a Saros to contain 120 months of 30 days apiece, which faith Scaliger, make ten Chaldee years, and a Nirus 20 equal months, and a Sosos two: according to which computation the 100 Sari make but 1200 years. But this computation of theirs is rejected by Georgius Syncellus, because he supposeth Eusebius fo well versed in these things, that he would never have fet them down for years, if the Chaldeans had not understood them so, and therefore he would not trouble himfelf in reducing Fables to true History, as he expresseth it, whose words are at large produced by Scaliger in the forecited place; and it will appear more necessary to reject those Chaldean Computations, if we take the summs of their years in the fence which Salmasius gives of them in the Preface to his Book, De annis Climactericis (from whom Dyrerius the Authour of the Præadamites hath borrowed most of his Arguments as to these things.) According to him then, every Edg contained no less than 6000 years, as the Toman among the Persians contained 10000, but because that learned

Not in Gr. Eufeb. p. 406. learned man hath only given us his reperi Scriptum, without any certain Foundation for fo large an account of those summs, we shall take them in as favourable a Sence as we can. In order to which a very learned man of our own hath found a third interpretation of the Sago, in the Chaldee accounts, from a correction of Suidas by the M. S. in the Vatican Library, ac- D. Pearson on cording to which he thus reads the words, Oi & ex origo mison the Creed. ένιαυτες βτηβ' χτ την Χαλδαίων Ψήρου, είτες ὁ σάςος ποιεί μήνας P. 115. 1. edit. Σεληγιακών σκβ', διοι γίνον αι επ ενιαυτοί κή μπνες έξ, and so the sence, faith he, is clear, Sago according to the Chaldee account comprehends 222 months, which come to eighteen years and fix months; therefore 120 oues make 2220 years, and therefore (he adds) for Bong'. I read, leaving out the last B, Bon'. Now according to this Sence of 120 Sari to comprehend the summ of 2220 years, it will be no difficult matter to reduce the fragment of Berofus concerning the ten Kings before the flood reigning 120 Sari, to some degree of probability: As to which I shall only suppose these two things. First, that the ancient Chaldeans had preserved among them some tradition of the number of the chief persons before the flood; for we find them exactly agreeing with the Scriptures as to the number, though differing as to the names of them, which may be seen in the Fragments of Africanus preserved in Eusebius his Greek Chronica. Secondly, that Berofus from whom Apollodorus and Alexander Polybistor deliver these computations. might, as to the account of the times of those persons, follow the translation of the Septuagint. For I have already made it. evident that Berofus did not publish his History till after the Septuagint was abroad; now according to the computation of the Septuagint of the ages before flood, these 120 Sari of the ten Kings will not much disagree from it. For these make 2220 years of these ten persons, and the Septuagint in all make 2242; so that if in stead of Bons' in Suidas, we only read it Bous' we have the exact computation of the Septuagint in these 120 Sari; but of this let the learned judge.

We now come to the Agyptian Dynasties of Manetho, as to which I doubt we must be fain to take the same course that Eusebius did with the Chaldean, μη συμβιβάζειν το ψεῦδΟ The anustia, not to trouble our selves overmuch in seeking to reconcile Fables to truth. Great pains is taken by some very

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learned

Pag. 5.

Sect. 5.

learned men to reduce the disorderly Dynasties of Manetho, to some probable account; but I must confess upon an impartial Examination of them, that I think they have striven, if not to make an Athiopian white, yet an Agyptian to speak truth concerning his own Country, which are almost of an equal impossibility. Joseph Scaliger who first in this latter age of the world produced them into the light out of Georgius Syncellus, hath a more favourable opinion of them, than of the Ægyptian History of Herodotus, Diodorus and others, but upon what account I cannot imagine. Is it because four Dynasties, according to his own computation, exceed the Creation of the world according to the true account? for which he is fain to make use of his Tempus prolepticum and Julian period, which reacheth 764 years beyond the age of the world, and was invented by him from the multiplication of the great Cycle into the indi-Etion, i. e. of 532 into 15. Or is it because forsooth Manetho hath digested all into better order, and reckoned up the several Dynasties which lay confused in other Authors? but this only shews him a more cunning impostor who saw the former accounts given by others would not ferve the turn, and therefore pretends to more exactness and diligence, that he might more easily deceive his Readers. But fetting aside those things which have been said already concerning Manetho, I have these things which make me reject his Dynasties as fabulous: First, the vast difference between Manetho his accounts and all others who have written the Ægyptian History in the order, and names of his Dynasties. Where do we ever read of the feveral Dynasties of the Thinites, Memphites, Soites, Diospolitans and many others, but in himself? It is very strange that neither Herodotus, nor Eratosthenes, nor Diodorus, who have all written a fuccession of the Ægyptian Kings, should neither by their own industry, nor by all the interest they had in Ægypt, get any knowledge of these methodically digested Dynasties. Besides, had their been any historical certainty in these Dynasties of Manetho, whence comes it to pass that they should be so filently passed over by those who were Ægyptian Priests themselves, and undertook to write the History of Ægypt? Such

Such were Charemon who was an isegyequualeus a sacred Scribe, and Ptolomaus Mendesius who was an Ægyptian Friest, as Eusebius tells us, and comprehended the History of Ægypt in three books. Now had this History been so authentical as is pretended, whence come fo many and great contradictions between them, infomuch that Fosephus faith, If that which they report were true, it were impossible they should so much dif- C. App. 1. 1. fer; but they labour in the invention of lyes, and write neither agreeably to the truth nor to one another. So that it is next to a miracle almost to see how prodigiously fond of these Dynasties Kircher is, and what pains he hath taken to no purpose about them; scio multos esse, saith he, qui bujusmodi Dynastias meras nugas & commenta putant; very true; but why is not Oed. Egy To 1. he of the same mind too? he confesseth himself to have been Sym. 1. c. 9. fo once; but fince he hath conversed more with the Oriental traditions, he hath found them not to be so fabulous as many make them. It feems then the Basis of the Ægyptian Dynafties as well before the flood as after, must lie in this Oriental tradition; a thing, which some, to shew their great skill in those Eastern Languages, are grown very fond of. But as far as I can yet see, they sail to Ophir, nor for Gold, but Peacocks; and the next Legend the world hath should be called Legenda Orientalis. For can any thing be more irrational, abfurd and fabulous, than those Arabick traditions which that Authour scrapes as much for, as Æsop's Cock did on the dunghil? but there is no jewel to be found among them; Unless we should take those fifteen hard names of men for such which by the Arabick writers are faid to have succeeded each other in Ægypt before the flood, viz. Nacraus, Nathras, Mesram, Henoah, Arjak, Hasilim, Husal, Tatrasan, Sarkak, Schaluk, Surith, (who they fay built the Pyramids) Hugith, Manaus, Aphrus, Malinus, Abn Ama Pharaun, in whose time they say the flood came. But should we be so little befriended by reason as to grant all this, what advantage will this be to Manetho, who speaks not of Kings, but whole Dynasties? so that it still appears these Dynasties are fabulous, not being attested by any credible witnesses. Secondly, All those who profess to follow Manetho, differ strangely from one another, as Josephus, Africanus, Eusebius, George the Syncellus of the Patriarch Tarasius; and Scaliger, who hath taken so much pains in digesting of them,

De atat. Mundi, cap. 10.

yet he is condemned by others since; and Isaac Vossius gives a particular caution to his Reader, In his Dynastiis compingendis nequaquam esse sequendum ordinem & calculum Scaligeri. What should be the reason of this diversity, but that they thought them not so authentick, but they might cut off, alter and transpose, as they saw occasion? which is most plain and evident in Eusebius, who makes no difficulty of cutting off one whole Dynasty, and dividing another into two, only to reconcile the distance between Thuoris, the Asyrian King, and Teutamus, the Asyrian Emperour, and the destruction of Troy; and therefore leaves out four Asyrian Kings, and a whole Dynasty of the Ægyptians, to make a Synchronism between those three.

Seit. 6.

Hist. Sacr. & exot. A. M. 3308.

But yet there hath been fomething very fairly offered to the world, to clear the truth, if not Manetho, in order to his Dynasties, viz. that the subtle Ægyptian, to inhance the antiquity of his own Countrey, did take implicite years for folid, and place those in a succession which were cotemporary one with another; This indeed is a very compendious way to advance a great fumm of years with a very little charge: Wherein he hath done, faith Capellus, as if a Spaniard in the Indies should glory of the antiquity of the Dynasties of Spain, and should attribute to the Earls of Barcinona 327 years, to the King of Arragon 498, to the King of Portugal 418, to the King of Leo 545, of Castile 800 years, and yet all these Dynasties rise from the year of our Lord 717, when the Saracens first entred Spain. There are very few Nations, but will go near to vie antiquity with the Ægyptians, if they may thus be allowed to reckon fuccessively all those petty royalties which anciently were in most Nations; as might be particularly instanced in most great Empires, that they gradually rise from the subduing and incorporating of those petty royalties into which the feveral Nations were cantonized before. And there feems to be very firong ground of suspicion that some such thing was defigned by Manetho, from the 32d. Dynasty which is of the Diospolitan Thebans; for this Dynasty is said to begin from the tenth year of the 15th. Dynasty of the Phanician Paflours in the time of Saites; now, which is most observable, he that begins this Dynasty, is of the very same name with him who begins the very first Dynasty of Manetho, who is Menes,

Sect. 7.

Menes, and so likewise his son Athothis is the same in both:
Which hath made many think, because Menes is reckoned first, not only in both these, but in Diodorus, Eratosthenes and others, that this Menes was he who first began the Kingdom of Egypt, after whose time it was divided into several Dynasties. Which makes Scaliger say, illa vetustissima regna fu-Canon. Isag l.3. erunt instar latrociniorum, ubi vis non lex aut successio aut suffragia populi reges in solio regni collocabant. This opinion of the co-existence of these Dynasties is much embraced by Vossius Gerard. Vos. both Father and Son, and by the Father made use of to justi-Idol. l. 1. c. 28. sie Scaliger from calumniators, who made as though Scaliger Mandi, c. 10.

tioning with some applause the Dynasties of Manetho.

But to this opinion, how plausible soever it seems, I offer these exceptions. First, As to that Menes who is supposed to be the first Founder of the Ægyptian Kingdom, after whose death it is supposed that Ægypt was divided into all these Dynasties; I demand therefore who this Menes was; was he the same with him whom the Scripture calls Misraim, who was the first Planter of Ægypt? this is not probable, for in all probability his name must be sought among the Gods, and not the mortals that reigned. If we suppose him to be any other after him, it will be hard giving an account how he came to have the whole power of Ægypt in his hands, and fo foon after him it should be divided. For Kingdoms are ofttimes made up of those petty royalties before; but it will be very hard finding instances of one person's enjoying the whole power, and so many Dynasties to arise after his decease, and to continue co-existent in peace and full power so long as these feveral Dynasties are supposed to doe. Besides, Is it not very strange that no Historian should mention such a former distribution of several Principalities so anciently in Ægypt? But that which to me utterly overthrows the co-existence of these Dynasties in Ægypt, is, by comparing with themwhat we find in Scripture of greatest antiquity concerning the Kingdom of Ægypt; which I cannot but wonder that none of these learned men should take notice of. When the Ægyptian Kingdom was first founded, is not here a place to enquire; but it is evident that, in Abraham's time, there was a Pharaoh, King of Ægypt (whom Archbishop Usher thinks to have been Apophis) not Abimelech Gen. 12.

Abimelech the first King of Ægypt, as Constantinus Manasses reports in his Annals (by a ridiculous mistake of the King of Gerar for the King of Ægypt.) This Pharaoh was then certainly King of all the Land of Ægypt, which still in Scripture is called the Land of Misraim from the first Planter of it: and this was of very great antiquity; and therefore Funccius (though improbably) thinks this Pharach to have been Ofris, and Rivet thinks Mifraim might have been alive till that time; here then we find no Dynasties co-existing, but one Kingdom under one King. If we descend somewhat lower, to the times of Facob and Foseph, the evidence is so undoubted of Ægypt's being an entire Kingdom under one King, that he may have just cause to suspect the eyes either of his body or his mind that distrusts it. For what more evident, than that Pharaoh who preferred Foseph, was King of all the Land of Ægypt? Were not the seven years of famine over all the Land of Ægypt? Gen. 41. 55. Was not Joseph set by Pharaoh over all the Land of Ægypt? Gen. 41. 41, 43, 45. And did not Joseph go over all the Land of Ægypt to gather corn? Gen. 41. 46. Nay, did he not buy all the Land of Ægypt for Pharaoh? Gen. 47. 20. Can there possibly be given any fuller evidences of an entire Kingdom, than these are, that Ægypt was such then? Afterwards we read of one King after another in Ægypt for the space of nigh two hundred years, during the children of Israel's slavery in Ægypt; and was not he, think we, King over all Ægypt, in whose time the children of Israel went out thence? And in all the following History of Scripture, is there not mention made of Ægypt still as an entire Kingdom, and of one King over it? Where then is there any place for these co-temporary Dynasties in Ægypt? No where that I know of, but in the fancies of some learned men.

Sect. 8.

Indeed there is one place that seems to give some countenance to this opinion; but it is in far later times than the first Dynasties of Manetho are supposed to be in, which is in Isai. 19.2. Where God saith, he would set the Ægyptians against the Ægyptians, and they shall sight every one against his brother, City against City, and Kingdom against Kingdom. Where it seems that there were several Kingdoms then existent among the Ægyptians; but the Septuagint very well renders it rouse. Now rouse, among the Ægyptians, as Epiphanius and others tell

Chap. 5. The Truth of Scripture-History asserted.

us, notes This exacts workers wereixida not regizage, the precincts of every great City, such as our Counties are, and therefore Pliny renders vousi by prafectura; these were the several Provinces of Ægypt, of which there were thirty fix in Ægypt, ten in Thebais, ten in Delta, the other fixteen in the midland parts: fo that by Kingdom against Kingdom, no more is meant than one Province being fet against another. Isaac Vossius thinks the number of the ancient Nomi was twelve, and that over every one of these was a peculiar King; and that this number may be gathered from the Dynasties of Manetho, setting aside the Dynasties of the Persians, Æthiopians, and Phanicians: viz. the Thinites, Memphites, Elephantines, Heracleopolitans, Diospolitan Thebans, the lesser Diospolitans, Xoites, Tanites, Bubastites, Saites, Mendesians, and Sebennytes: and so that Ægypt was anciently a Dodecharchy, as England in the Saxons times was a Heptarchy. But as it already appears, there could be anciently no such Dodecharchy in Ægypt; so it is likewise evident that this distribution of Ægypt into Nomi is a later thing, and by most Writers is attributed to Sesossis or Sesostris, whom Fosephus supposeth to be Sesack King of Ægypt, co-temporary with Rehobam. Indeed if we believe Gelaldinus the Arabick Vid Boch Geoer.

Historian cited by Kircher, the most ancient distribution of A-p. 1. 1. 4. c. 4. gypt was into four parts. Mifraim held one part to himself, Oedip. Ægypt. To.1. Syntag. 1. and gave his Son Copt another, Esmun a third, and Atrib a c. 4. fourth part; which division the same Authour affirms to have continued till the time of Joseph, who made a new distribution of the whole Land: After him Sesostris divided the whole into thirty feveral Nomi; fo Kircher will needs have it, that of the three several parts of Ægypt, each might have for some mystical signification its ten Nomi, of which every one had its distinct and peculiar God it worshipped, and a particular Palace in the Labyrinth, and a peculiar Sanhedrin or Court of Fustice belonging to it. But it evidently appears by that vain-glorious Oedipus, that it is a far easier matter to make new mysteries, than to interpret old ones, which as it might be easily discovered in the main foundations whereon that structure stands, so we have some evidence of it in our first entrance into it, in this part of Chorography of Ægypt. For from whence had he this exact division of Ægypt into thirty Nomi, ten of which belonged to the upper Ægypt, or Thebais, ten to Delta,

or

Syntag. 1. c. 2. Countrey? Hath he this from Ptolomy, whose Scheme of the feveral Nomi he publisheth? No, Ptolomy and Pliny by his own confession afterwards add many other to these, as Omphile, Phanturites, Tanites, Phatnites, Neut, Heptanomos, &c., Hath

Geogr. 1. 17.

Phanturites, Tanites, Phatnites, Neut, Heptanomos, &c. Hath he it from Strabo, whose authority he cites for it? No such matter. For Strabo faith expresly that Thebais had ten Nomi. Delta ten, and the Midland fixteen; only some are of opinion. faith he, that there were as many Nomi as Palaces in the Labyrinth, which were toward thirty; but yet the number is uncertain still. We see by this how ominous it is for an Oedipus to stumble at the threshold, and how easie a matter it is to interpret mysteries, if we may have the making of them. We fee then no evidence at all for these co-temporary Dynasties of . Manetho; which yet if we should grant, would be a further argument of the uncertainty of heathen Chronology, when among them implicite years are given out to the world for folid; so that which way soever Manetho his Dynasties be taken, they will prove the thing in hand, whether we suppose them at least most part fabulous, or should grant he had taken those in fuccession to each other, which were co-existent with one another.

CHAP.

CHAP. VI.

The uncertain Epocha's of Heathen Chronology.

An account given of the defect of Chronology in the eldest times. Of the Solar year among the Ægyptians, the original of the Epacts, the antiquity of Intercalation among them. Of the feveral Canicular years; the difference between Scaliger and Petavius considered. The certain Epocha's of the Agyptian History no elder than Nabonasser. Of the Grecian accounts. The fabulousness of the Heroical age of Greece. Of the ancient Grecian Kingdoms. The beginning of the Olympiads. The uncertain Origins of the Western Nations. Of the Latin Dynasties. The different Palilia of Rome. The uncertain reckoning Ab U. C. Of impostures as to ancient Histories. Of Annius, Inghiramius, and others. Of the characters used by Heathen Priests. No sacred characters among the Jews. The partiality and inconsistency of Heathen Histories with each other. From all which the want of credibility in them as to an account of ancient times is clearly demonstrated.

THE next thing to evidence the uncertainty of the heathen Chronology, is, the want of certain parapegmata, or some fixed periods of time, according to which the account of times must be made. For if there be no certain Epocha's by which to reckon the succession of ages, the distance of intervals, and all intervening accidents, we must of necessity fluctuate in continual uncertainties, and have no fure foundation to bottom any account of ancient times upon. The great reason of this defect, is, the little care which those who lived in the eldest times had to preserve the memory of any ancient tradition among themselves, or to convey it to posterity in such a way as might be least liable to imposture. Of all kinds of Learning, Chronology was the most rude in eldest times; and yet that is well called by Scaliger, The life and foul of History, without which, History is but a confused lump, a mere Mola, an indigested piece of slesh, without life or form. The ancient accounts of the world were merely from year to year, and that with abundance of obscurity, uncertainty and variety: sometimes going

Sect. 1.

Scaliger

L. 1. c. 50.

ing by the course of the Moon, and therein they were as mutable as the Moon herself, how to conform the year regularly to her motion; and it was yet greater difficulty to regulate it by the course of the Sun, and to make the accounts of the Sun and Moon meet. There was fo much perplexity and confusion about the ordering of a single year, and so long in most Nations before they could bring it into any order, that we are not to expect any fixed periods by which to find out the fuccession of ages among them. Among the Egyptians who are supposed most skilfull in the account of the year, it was a long time before they found out any certain course of it. It is agreed by most, that when the Ægyptian Priests had found out the form of the year by the course of the Sun (which is attributed by Diodorus to the Heliopolitan Priests) yet the year in common use was only of 360 days, which in any great period of years must needs cause a monstrous confusion, by reason that their Months must of necessity by degrees change their place, so that in the great Canicular year of 730 Thoyth, which was the beginning of the Summer Solftice in the entrance into that period, would be removed into the midst of Winter, from whence arose that Ægyptian Fable in Herodotus, that in the time of their eldest Kings, the Sun had twice Euterp. Vide Scaliger. de E- changed his rifing and setting; which was only caused by the mend. Temp. 1.3. variation of their Months, and not by any alteration in the course of the Sun. Which defect the Ægyptian Priests at last observing, saw a necessity of adding five days to the end of the year, which thence were called & may only as, which implies they were not anciently in use among them, being afterwards added to make up the course of the year. Which the Ægyptians give an account of, as Plutarch tells us under this Fable: Mercury being once at Dice with the Moon, he got from her the 72d. part of the year, which he after added to the 360 days which were anciently the days of the year, which they called impulsias, and therein celebrated the Festivals of their Gods, thence the names of the several imayous were taken from the Gods; the first was called 'Ories, it being celebrated in honour of him; the second, 'Apriless, by which Scaliger understands Anubis, but Vossius more probably the Senior

> Orws; the third to Typho; the fourth to Isis; the fifth to Nephthat he wife of Typho and fifter to Isis. This course of the year

De Iside & Ofiri.

p. 195.

De Idel. l. Y. e. 28.

Chap. 6. The Truth of Scripture-History afferted.

Scaliger thinks that the Ægyptians represented by the Serpent called Nao, being described in a round cirle biting some part of his tail in his mouth, whereby faith he, they would have it understood, that the form of the year was not perfect without that adjection of five days to the end of the year: For to this day, faith he, the Coptites and ancient Acordians call the end of the year veroi. It seems that afterwards they understood likewise the necessity of intercalation of a day every fourth year, for the fake of the redundant quadrant each year above 365 days; which course of four years they called their Canicular year, because they observed its defect in that time one whole day from the rifing of the Dog-star: and besides that they called it in land "tog and "TO Ass. & lustrum Sothiacum, from Sabis the Dog-star: but Censori- De die Natali nus denies any use of intercalation among the Ægyptians in c. 18. their civil year, although their Sacred and Hieroglyphical years might admit of it. And upon this ground, I suppose the controversie between those two learned persons, Scaliger and Petavius, concerning the antiquity of Intercalation among the Agyptians may be reconciled. For on the one fide it is v. Petan de apparent, that the ordinary or civil year did want intercala- dostr. temp. 1.3. tion, by this testimony of Censorinus; Eorum annus civilis solos c. 2. habet dies 365 sine ullo intercalari; itaq; quadriennium apud eos uno circiter die minus est quam naturale quadriennium; and thence faith he, it comes to pass, that in 1461 years, which was the great Heliacal year, it returns to the same beginning; for then the Dog-star ariseth again upon the first day of the month Thoyth, as it did at the beginning of this great Canicular year; and that this kind of civil year did continue among them in the time of Cenforinus (which was of the Dionysian account 228) appears by this, that he saith in the year wherein he wrote his Book, the New-moon of Thoyth was before the feventh day of the Calends of July, whereas 100 years before, it was before the 12 of the Calends of August; whence it is evident, that the Julian year, whatever some learned men pretend to the contrary, was not in ordinary use among the Ægyptians in that time; and that Sofigenes when he corrected the Roman account, and brought in Egypt. Tom. 3 the form of the Julian year, did not take his pattern from the Class. 7. cap 2 Ægyptian year, but from the Grecians of Alexandria, who

Biblioth. l. I. 6. 49.

De Sphæra сар. б.

Bibl. 1. 1. cab. 50. Geog. 1. 17.

c. 5.

De Idol. 1. 1. c. 28. De Hermet. Med.c. 12.

did make use of the quadrant added to the 265 years, which the Agyptians did not, as appears further by the golden circle in the monument of Osmanduas (which Diodorus speaks of out of Hecat aus Milesius) which was of 265 cubits compals. and divided into fo many segments for every day with the observations of the rising and setting of the several stars, and the effects portended by them. And the reason why this year continued in civil use among the Ægyptians, is well asfigned by Geminus, that the Ægyptians according to a fuperstitious observation they had, would needs have their Festivals run through every day in the year. But now on the other side. it is as evident that by continual observation the wifest of the Ægyptian Priests did discern the necessity of intercalation, and that there wanted fix hours in every year to make it compleat, which every four years would make the intercalation of a day necessary; so much by Diodorus is affirmed of the-Theban Priests, who were the best Astronomers, and by Strabo both of the Theban and Heliopolitan; and so likewise Horapollo, whose work was to interpret the more abstruse Learning of the Ægyptian Priests: when, (saith he) the Ægyptians would express a year, they name a quadrant, because from one rifing of the star Sothis to another, the fourth part of a day is added, so that the year consists of 265 days, (and a quadrant must be added, because of the antecedents and conse-Hieroglyph. 1.1. quents) therefore every fourth year they reckon a supernumerary day. How unjustly Petavius hath charged Scaliger with fallhood in reference to this testimony of Horapollo, meerly because the citation did not appear in that Chapter mentioned by Scaliger in the Book which Petavius used, hath been already observed by learned men; whereupon Vossius condemns Petavius of strange incogitancy, because in three Editions mentioned by him, Scaliger's citation was right; but Conringius hath fince pleaded in behalf of Petavius, that he might make use of the Edition of Causinus distinct from the other three; whereby we fee how finall a matter will beget a feud between learned men, especially where prejudice hath lodged before, as is too evident in Petavius his rough dealing on all occasions, with that very deserving person Foseph Scaliger. But to return, from hence by degrees the Ægyptians proceeded to make greater periods of years (as Eudoxus carried

Sect 2

Chap. 6. The Truth of Scripture-History asserted.

carried his Octaeteris into Greece from the Canicular year of the Egyptians) they framed from this a greater Canicular year, which had as many years as a Julian hath days; and Lastly, the greatest Canicular year which comprehended four of the greater, and consisted of a period of 1461 years. But thus we see, that the great periods of years among them rise gradually, as they grow more skilful in the understanding the nature of the year; and that they had anciently no certain periods to govern themselves by in their computation of ancient times. Nay the Agyptians have not, as appears, any certain Epocha to go by elder than the Agyptian years of Nabonsser, and afterwards from the death of Alexander, and Ptolomy Philadelphus, and Augustus his Victory at Actium.

If from the Agyptians we remove our discourse unto the

Grecians, we are still plunged into greater uncertainties, it being acknowledged by themselves that they had no certain

Succession of time before the Olympiads. To which purpose the Testimony of Varro in Censorinus is generally taken notice of, distributing time into three parts, reckoning two of them to be unknown and fabulous, and the historical part of stime to begin with the first Olympiad. Indeed Scaliger and some others are loth to reject all that second part of time as sabulous, which was in the interval between Deucalion's slood and the Olympiads; and therefore they had rather call it He-

that it was historical as to persons, but fabulous as to the actions of those persons. But granting this; yet we are wholly to seek for any certain account of the succession of time and persons for want of some certain Epocha's, which like the Pole star should guide us in our passage through that boundless Ocean of the Grecian History. It must be consessed that some of the learned Heathens have taken a great deal of pains this way to find out some certain periods to fix on in the time before the Olympiads, as Philochorus, Apollodorus, and Dionysus Halycarnassens, and others, who out of their skill in A-stronomy sought to bring down some certain intervals between

the destruction of Troy, and the first Olympick game of Pelops, restored by Hercules and Atreus. But granting that their E-pocha's were fixed and certain, that the destruction of Troy was upon the 23 of Thargelion, the 11th month of the At-

roical, though much corrupted with Fables, and to think

tick

tick account, and that the Olympick game fell out answerably to the ninth of our July, and these things were evidently proved from Astronomical observations; yet how vast an account of time is lost quite beyond the siege of Troy! And besides that, as to all other accidents in the Intervals between these two Epocha's which could not be proved by Celestial observations concurrent with them, they were left at a very great uncertainty still; only they might guess whether they approached nearer to one Epocha than the other by the series of Families and their Generations (three of which made a Century of years) whereby they might come to some conjectures, but could never arrive at any certainty at all.

Sect. 3.

But that which is most to our purpose is, that all the Hifory of the Original of Greece, the Foundations of their feveral Kingdoms, the fuccession of their first Kings, and all that comes under the name of the History of their ancient times, is clearly given over by their own most skilful Chronologers, as matters out of the reach of any clear evidence. come fuch great differences concerning the antiquity of their ancient Kingdoms; the Argolick Kingdom by Dionysius Halycarnass. is supposed to be the eldest, and the Attick younger than it by 40 Generations, which according to their computation comes to a 1000 years, which is impossible; and yet the Arcadians, who gave themselves out to be elder than the Moon, are supposed to be younger by him than the Grashoppers of Athens by nine Generations; and the Pthiotica, under Deucalion, younger than the Arcadia by 42 Generations, which Scaliger might well fay were impossible and inconsistent. The Sicyonian Kingdom is by most supposed to be of greatest antiquity among the Grecians, from which Varro began his History, as S. Austin tells us; and yet as to this, Pausanias only reckons the names of some Kings there, without any succession of time among them; and yet as to those names, Africanus (and Eusebius from him) diffent from Pausanias; and which is most observable, Homer reckons Adrastus, who is the 23 in the account of Africanus, to be the first that reigned in Sicyon, whose time was after the institution of the Olympick game by Pelops: of him thus Homer,

De Civit. Dei, l. 16. c. 2.

Kai Zixuar öbag 'Adens @ meat eusacineuer.

Whereby he expresseth Adrastus to be the first King of Sievon; and not as Scaliger would interpret it, that Adrastus was first King of the Sicyonians, before he was of the Argives; for in the time of Adrastus at Sicyon, either Atreus, or Thyeftes was King of the Argives: for in the second year of Phastus and Adrastus his supposed Predecessor in Sicyon, Atreus restored the Olympick game of Pelops, in the 41 year of their reign, and they reigned at Argi 65 years; Now that Phastus at Sicyon is supposed to reign but eight years; and therefore the reign of Adrastus at Sicyon falls in with that of Atreus and Thyestes at Argi or Mycena. Thus we see now how uncertain the account of times was before the beginning of the Olympiads among the Grecians, which is fully acknowledged by Diodorus, and the very reason given which we here infift on, sa το μηδέν παράπηγμα παρειληφθένας TERI TETOV TE SEVOUSVOY, that there was no certainty in the ancient Grecian history, because they had no certain term (which he calls parapegma, as others Epocha, and Cenforinus titulus) from whence to deduce their accounts. But now from the time of the Olympiads (i. e. from the first of them after their restoration by Iphitus, wherein the names of the Conquerors were ingraven in Brass tablets for the purpose) the succession of time is most certain and historical among the Grecians; by which account we have from thence a certain way of commenfurating the facred and prophane History. All the difficulty is in what year of facred History the Olympiads began, which Scaliger thus finds out. Censorinus writes (in the year of Christ 238 which was of the Julian period 4951.) that, De emend temp. that year was from the first Olympiad of Iphicus 1014, the first 1.5. Olympiad was of the Julian period 39 28. which was according to our learned Primate A. M. 3228, and the 25 of Uzziah King of Judah, or the 34 as Capellus thinks: So that from henceforward we have a clear account of times, which we have demonstrated to have been so uncertain before.

If we come from the Greeks further into these European Sect. 4. parts, we shall find as much darkness and obscurity as to ancient times, if not more, than in those already discoursed of. For the truth is, the account of times before the Romans in Italy, Germany, old Gallia or Britain, are scarce fit to be difcoursed of under any head than that of impostures. Not

that I think those Nations had lain in a perpetual sleep till the Romans waked them into some kind of civility, but that they had no certain way of conveying down the transactions of their own and former times to the view of posterity. On which account we may justly reject all those pretended successions of Kings here in Britain from Gomer and Brute as fabulous: And it will be the less wonder it should be so in those then accounted barbarous Nations, when even among those who were the Planters of knowledge and civility among others, the account of their ancient times is fo dark, confufed, and uncertain: As it would fufficiently appear to any that would take the pains to examine the fuccession of the two first Dynasties among the Latines; the first before Aneas his coming into Italy, and the second of the Eneada after; and certainly it will be fufficient ground to question the account of times before, if in the third Dynasty, when the succession feems fo clear, and fo certain an Epocha as the building of Rome, to deduce their accounts from their Chronology be uncertain, which I shall briefly speak to. For although Porcius Cato have in Dionysius the honour of finding out the first Palilia of the City of Rome (which was the Feast observed to the honour of the Goddess Pales, in the time of which, the foundations of Rome were laid) yet there appears no great certainty in his undertaking; for therein he was after contradi-Fred by the learned Roman Varro. Dionysius tells us that Cato found by the Censors tables the exact time from the expulsion of the Kings, to the time of the Cities being taking by the Gauls; from which time to his own, he could not miss of it from the Fasti Consulares; so that it cannot be denied but that Cato might have a certain account of times from the Regifugium to the time he writ his Origines. But what certainty Cato could have from the first Palilia of the City to the expulsion of Tarquin, we cannot understand. For the succession of Kings must needs be very uncertain, unless it be demonstrated from fome publick monuments, or certain records, or fome publick actions certainly known to have fallen out precifely in such a vear of their feveral Reigns. Now none of these do occur in the Roman History, in all that Interval from the Palilia to the Regifugium; fo that not only the whole interval, but the time of every particular King's Reign, are very uncertain. And therefore

therefore Varro being destitute of any demonstration of that time, had recourse to L. Tarrutius Firmanus, to see if by his skill in Aftronomy he could certainly find out the first Polilia of Rome: His answer was, that he found that the City was built in the time of an Eclipse of the Sun, which was in the 2d year of the fixth Olympiad; according to which account Varro proceeded, and thence arose the difference between the Palilia Catoniana and Varroniana; the latter falling out in the 23 of Iphitus, the other in the 24. But if we believe Joseph Scali- V. de Emend ger, there could not be an Eclipse of the Sun, at the time affirm-temp. 1.5 p. 388. ed by Tarrutius: But yet granting an Eclipse of the Sun then, what certainty can we have of the fuccession of the several Kings afterwards, without which there can be no certain computation ab Urbe condita? If then the Romans, who had so great advantage of knowing times, and were withal so inquisitive concerning the building of their City (which was a thing of no very remote distance) could attain to no absolute certainty without it, what certainty can we expect as to an account of far ancienter times, either from them or others, when they had no Censors tables, nor Fasti Consulares to be guided by? And thus much may ferve to shew the great uncertainty of Heathen Chronology, as to the giving an account of ancient times.

And yet were it only an uncertainty as to Chronology; we might better bear with it; for the mistake meerly in computation of times were not fo dangerous (any further than the credibility of the History depends on the computation, as in point of antiquity) if we were but certain that the persons and actions related of them were fuch as they are reported to be. But that which adds much to the confusion and uncertainty of Heathen history, is, the frequency of Impostures, which are more hard to be discovered, in that there are no authentick Histories of those times extant, which hath both given occafion to variety of impostures, and much hindred their discovery. For the curiofity of men leading them back into a fearch after ancient times, it makes them exceeding credulous in embracing whatever pretends to give them any conduct through those dark and obscure paths of ancient History: And the world hath never been wanting of fuch as would be ready to abuse the simple credulity of well-meaning, but less wary men; but those ages have been most feracious in the pro-

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Sect. 4.

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duction of fuch persons, which have pretended to more Learning than they had. The pretence of Learning made fuch perfons appear, and the want of it made them not be discovered. Thus it was not only of old among the Chaldean and Agyptian Priests, and the Grecian Poets and Historians, of whom we have spoken already; but even among those who might have learned more truth from the Religion they professed, than to think it flood in need of their lyes. For there can be no greater disparagement offered to truth, than to defend it with any thing but it felf, nothing laying truth so open to suspicion, as when fallhood comes to be its advocate: And a false testimony discovered, doth more prejudice to a good cause, than it could any ways advantage it, were it not discovered; and therefore their labours have been as ferviceable to the world who have difcovered Impostures, as those who have directly maintained truth against its open opposers, those being so much more dangerous, in that they appear in the disguise of truth, and therefore are with more difficulty discovered. Such a one was that ignis fatuus that appeared in a kind of twilight in the Christian world between the former darkness of Barbarism, and the approaching light of knowledge; I mean Annius Viterbiensis, who like Hannibal in passing the Alps, not finding a way ready to his mind, sets himself to burning the woods, and firing the rocks, and disfolving them with vinegar to make a passage through them: So Annius being befet in those snowy and gray-headed Alps of ancient history, and finding no way clear for him according to his fancy, he labours to burn down all certain Records, to eat through the credit of undoubted Authors, to make a more free passage from his own history, which he deduceth suitably to Scripture for the concurrent testimony of the eldest Historians. which purpose, a New Berosus, Manetho, Philo, Metasthenes (as he mistook for Megasthenes) and Xenophon must put on a grave disguife, and walk abroad the world with a mantle of Antiquity about their shoulders, although they were nothing else but airy Phantasms, covered over with the Cowl of the Monk of Viterbo. For being himself somewhat more versed in the history of those elder times than generally persons were in the age he lived in, he made that unhappy use of his skill, to play the Mountebank with his learning; and to abuse the credulity of those who have better stomachs than palates, and can sooner swallow down the compositions

tions that are given them, than find out the Ingredients of them. Thus Annius puts a good face on his new-old Authors, bidsthem be bold and confident, and they would fare the better: And the truth is, they tell their flory so punctually in all circumflances, in those things which had no certain conveyance to posterity, that that were sufficient ground to any intelligent perfon to question their authority. But lest his Anthors should at any time want an Interpreter to make out their full meaning, he fets himself a large Commentary upon them. And certainly he was the fittest person in the world to doe it; for, cujus est condere, ejus est interpretari; none so sit to explain Annius as Annius himself. The whole story of this Imposture, how he made the Inscriptions himself, and hid them under ground, how they were digged thence and brought to Annius; how Annius caused them to be sent to the Magistrates, and after published them in the equipage they are in, are at large related by that learned Bishop Antonius Augustinus, from Latinus Latinius.

Dialog. 11.

Sect. 6.

From a like quarry to this, came out those other famous Infcriptions, walking under the specious title of Antiquitatum Ethruscarum fragmenta, wherein, besides many palpable incongruities to the customs of those eldest times, discovered partly by Leo Allatius in his Discourse concerning them, there are so many particular stories and circumstances related concerning Noah's being in Italy, and other things fo far beyond any probability of reason, that it is a wonder there are yet any persons pretending to Learning, who should build their discourses upon such rotten and sandy foundations as these Inscriptions are. But though Ixion might, Jupiter would never have been deceived with a Cloud instead of Funo; so, though persons unacquainted with the lineaments of truth, may be easily imposed on with appearances instead of her: yet such persons who have sagacity enough to discern the air of her countenance from the paint of forgeries, will never suffer themfelves to be over-reached by fuch vain pretenders. But these Impostors are like the Astrologers at Rome, ever banished, and yet ever there; and so these are ever exploded by all Lovers of truth, yet always find some to applaud and entertain them: Although it be more difficult to doe so now in the present light of knowledge, and all advantages for learning, than it was in those elder times, when the Heathen Priests pretended to the Monopoly of Learning among themselves, and made it one of their great designs to keep all others in dependance on themselves, thereby to keep up their veneration the better among the people. And therefore all the Records they had of Learning or History, were carefully lockt up, and preserved among the Priests, and lest at any time others might get a view of them, they were sure to preserve them in a peculiar Character distinct from that in civil and common use. By which means the Heathen Friests had all imaginable opportunities and conveniences for deceiving the silly people, and thereby keeping them in an obsequious Ignorance, which is never the Mother of any true Devotion, but of the greatest Superstition.

Sect. 7.

Diod. 1. 3.

It is well known of the Agyptian Priests, that the sacred Characters of their Temples were feldom made known to any but fuch as were of their own number and family, (the ! rieftbood being there hereditary) or fuch others as by long converse had infinuated themselves into their society, as some of the Greek Philosophers and Historians had done: And yet we have some reason to think they were not over-free and communicative to some of them, by the slender account they give of feveral things, which are supposed to be well known among the Agyptians. That the Phanician Friests had their peculiar and sacred Characters too, is evident from the words of Philo Byblius concerning Sanconiathon, if we take Bochartus his Exposition of them: He tells us that his History was compared, πίς τως τη αθύτων εύρεθείσιν, αποκρύφοις 'Αμμενέων γράμμασιν a in the Tan gradeque, with the Inscriptions in the Temples written in the Ammunean Letters, which are known to few: Literæ Ammuneorum (saith Bochartus) sunt litera Templorum, litera in sacris except a. For and is the Sun, thence in the Temple of the Sun, whom the Phanicians worshipped as their principal Deity, under the name of Beel-samen, the Lord of Heaven. The same Author tells us out of Diogenes Laertius, of a Book of Democritus, mei Th en Basun wi isgor yegupator by which it is evident that the Babylonian Priests had their sacred Chara-Eters too: And of a Testimony of Theodoret of all the Gracian Temples, en rois Exaluixois valois Soi mires nous xagaxinges yeauμάτων, is isequines περστροεεύων, that they had some peculiar Characters which were called facred. But that learned Author thinks

Evang. l. 1.

Eufeb. Prap.

Geogr Sacr. p. 2. l. 2. c. 17.

Quast. in Gen. 61.

thinks there is no necessity of understanding it peculiarly of the Gracians, because the Greek Fathers called all Heathens by the name of Greeks; but if so, the Testimony is the larger, and amounts to an universal Testimony of the Heathen Temples. Neither was this only peculiar to them, if we believe forme

persons of greater Learning than Judgment, who attribute this distinction of facred and vulgar Characters to the Tews as Sett. 8.

well as others, but without any probability of reason. For these learned men being strongly possessed with the opinion of the modern Fews concerning the Antiquity of the present Hebrew Characters, and finding themselves pressed not only with the Testimony of some ancient Rabbins, but with the stronger evidence of the ancient shekels about Solomon's time, inscribed with the Samaritan letters, have at last found this Evasion, that the Samaritan letters were in vulgar use; but the present Charaster's were then facred, and not made common till after the time of the Captivity. But this feems to be a mere shift, found out by some modern Jews, and greedily embraced by their Followers, because thereby they are in hopes to evade the strength of the contrary arguments, which otherwise they can find no probable folution of. And a mere shift it will appear to be, to any one that considers on how little ground of reason it stands: For none of those reasons which held for fuch a distinction of Characters among the Heathens, can have any place among the Jews. For it was never any part of God's design to have the Law kept from the peoples view. Truth is never so fearfull of being seen abroad; it is only falshood that walks under disguises, and must have its hidingplaces to retreat to: Nay, God expresly commanded it as a duty of all the Fews, to fearch and study his Law, which they could not doe, if it were locked up from them in an unknown Charaster. Did not God himself promulge it among the people of Israel by the Ministry of Moses? Did he not command it to be as frontlets between their eyes, and signs up-Exod. 13. 16. on their hands (not that Phylasteries should be made of the Deut. 6. 8. Law to wear, as the Pharifees interpreted it, and others from them have mistaken) but that they should have the Law in continual remembrance, as if it were always between their eyes, and ingraven upon their hands. Again, if we suppose the Law to be among the people, but in the vulgar character, I would

I would fain know, what fanctity, majesty, and authority there was in that character more than in the words and matter? and if there were, how comes the vulgar use of it to be no where forbidden? and how durst Ezra, as is supposed, after the Captivity, profane so lacred a thing by exposing it to common use? But granting them yet further, that it was lawfull, but not usefull, to make use of that sacred character; I demand then. how comes that difuse to continue so punctually till the time of Ezra, and that it should never be divulged before? when there was fo great reason to make it common, since the square letters are less operose, more expedite and facile, than the Samaritan, which is, when time ferves, used as a plea for their great Antiquity. But yielding yet more, that the Sacred Character was only used for the authentick copy of the Law which was to decide all differences of other copies (which fome run to as their last shift) I appeal to any man's reason, whether this be not the most improbable of all? For how could fuch a copy be the Judge of all others, which could not be read or understood by those who appealed to it? Or was the knowledge and reading of this character peculiar to the High Priest, and conveyed down as a Cabala from one to another? but how many incongruities would follow hence, in case one High Priest should die before his Son was capable of understanding the letters, and so that Sacred treasure must needs be lost; or had they it all by inspiration, and understood the Sacred Character by Vrim and Thummim? Thus every way, this opinion among the 7ems is pressed with inconveniences, but it was most suitable to the Heathen Priests to maintain a Meum and Tuum between their own Character and the vulgar; For hereby they prohibited all prying into their myfleries by any, but those who had the same Interest with themfelves, and therefore were unlikely to discover any thing that might lessen their reputation. Whereas, had there been nothing but Truth in their Records, or that Truth had been for their Interest, what need had there been of so great reservedness and privacy? but when the discovery of truth would undeceive the world, it was their Interest to lock it up, and to give out fuch things to the vulgar, which might advance themselves and please them; which artifices of theirs give no small ground to question the credibility of their Histories.

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Especially if we add what we promised in the last place, to shew the want of credibility in the report of ancient times among them, which was not only defectiveness, and uncertainty, but apparent partiality to themselves, and inconsistency with each other. How evident is it in all these Nations we have spoken to, how much they strive to inhance the reputation of their own Nation, and to that end blend the History of other Nations with their own to make theirs feem the greater? How much do the Agyptians tell us of the excellency of their ancient Laws and Government? and yet how evident is it, from their own Histories, that no such Laws were observed by their Kings as they speak of? Can we think that such Kings as Chemmis and the rest of them, who built those vast structures of the Pyramids, and imployed Myriads of men for fo many years for the doing of them, would be content to be fo dieted by their Laws, as Hecataus and Diodorus tell us they were to be? Nay it feems to be very fuspicious, that the great enterprizes of their famous Sesoosis are meerly fabulous, and fome think an attributing to themselves, what was done by the Assyrian Emperour in his time. By which we may guess, what to think of the great Conquests of Osiris and Is, and their subduing almost the whole world to them. And it is most evident how partial the Agyptians are in dissembling their greatest losses; as is clear in the story of the Conquest of Pharao Neco by Nebuchadnezzar, Jer. 46. 12. of which there is not the least mention in Herodotus or Diodorus; But on the contrary, Herodotus tells us this Necos, as he calls him, conquered the Syrians at Magdalos; and the flory of Vaphres and Amasis in him seems to be only a disguise of Nebuchadnezzar's Conquest; onely lest men should think them conquered by a Foreigner, they make Amasis to be an Agyptian Plebeian. Again, what a vast number of Cities doth Diodorus tell us of that were in Agypt in their eldest times? no less Biblioth. 1. 1. than 18000. when yet himself confesseth in the time of Ptolomeus Lagi, there were reckoned but somewhat above 3000 Cities, and then Ægypt was the most populous that ever it had been. How probable doth this found, that in those eldest times such vast multitudes of Cities should be erected? But the truth is, it is not unsuitable to their opinion of the production of the first men, which were caused, say they, by the

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beat of Sun, and the mud of Nilus; and it is certain then they might be the most populous Nation in the world : for there could be no defect as to either efficient or material cause. there being mud enough to produce Myriads, and the Sun hot enough to impregnate it. The partiality of other Nations hath been already discoursed of in our passage; and so likewise hath their mutual repugnancy to, and inconsistency with, each other: Which yet might be more fully manifested from the contradictions in reference to the Agyptian History between Manetho, Herodotus, Diodorus, Dicearchus, Eratofthenes, and all who have spoken of it; as to the Assyrian Empire between Herodotus, Diodorus, and Julius Africanus; as to the Persian Empire between Herodotus and Ctesias, and those in no inconsiderable things, as is evident in Photius his excerpta out of him. Among the Grecians we have already difcovered it as to their History and Geography; and if we should enter into their Theology, and the History of that, we should find their other differences inconfiderable, if compared with these. Of which we may partly make a conjecture by the incredible spite that is born by the gravest Greek Authours. as Strabo, Plutarch, and others, towards Eumerus Siculus, for offering to deliver the History of Jupiter, which he saith, he transcribed from the golden pillar in the Temple of Jupiter Triphyllius in Panchotis.

But I suppose enough hath been discovered already, to prove that there is no credibility in any of those Heathen Histories, which pretend to give an account of ancient times, there being in all of them so much defect and insufficiency, so great uncertainty and confusion, so much partiality and inconsistency with each other. It remains now that I proceed to demonstrate the credibility of that account of ancient times, which is reported in the Sacred Scriptures, which will

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be the second part of our Task.

BOOK II.

CHAP. I.

The certainty of the Writings of Moses:

In order to the proving the truth of Scripture-history, several Hypotheses laid down. The first concerns the reasonableness of preserving the ancient History of the world in some certain Records, from the importance of the things, and the inconveniencies of meer Tradition or constant Revelation. The second concerns the certainty that the Records under Moses his name, were andoubtedly his. The certainty of a matter of fast enquired into in general, and proved as to this particular by universal Consent, and settling a Common-wealth upon his Laws. The impossibility of an Impostor as to the Writings of Moses demonstrated. The pleas to the contrary largely answered.

AVING sufficiently demonstrated the want of credibility in the account of the ancient times, given by those Nations who have made the greatest pretence to Learning and Antiquity in the world, we now proceed to evince the credibility and certainty of that account which is given us in facred Scriptures: In order to which I shall premise these following Hypotheses.

It stands to the greatest reason, that an account of things so concerning and remarkable, should not be always left to the uncertainty of an oral Tradition; but should be timely entred into certain Records, to be preserved to the memory of posterity. For it being of concernment to the world, in order to the Establishment of belief as to future things, to be fully setled

Sect. I.

Нур. 1.

in the belief that all things past were managed by Divine Providence, there must be some certain Records of former Ages. or else the mind of Man will be perpetually hovering in the greatest uncertainties: Especially where there is such a mutual dependence and concatenation of one thing with another, as there is in all the Scripture-history. For take away but any one of the main Foundations of the Mosaical history, all the Superstructure will be exceedingly weakned, if it doth not fall quite to the ground. For Man's obligation to obedience unto God, doth necessarily suppose his original to be from him: his hearkning to any propolals of favour from God, doth fuppose his Apostasie and fall; God's designing to shew mercy and favour to fallen Man, doth suppose that there must be some way whereby the Great Creator must reveal himself as to the Conditions on which fallen Man may expect a recovery; the revealing of these Conditions' in such a way whereon a suspicious (because guilty) creature may firmly rely, doth suppose so certain a recording of them, as may be least liable to any fuspicion of imposture or deceit. For although nothing else be in it felf necessary from God to Man, in order to his Salvation, but the bare revealing in a certain way the Terms on which he must expect it; yet considering the unbounded Nature of Divine Goodness, respecting not only the good of some particular Persons, but of the whole Society of mankind, it stands to the greatest reason that such a Revelation should be fo propounded, as might be with equal certainty conveyed to the community of mankind. Which could not with any such evidence of credibility be done by private and particular Revelations (which give satisfaction only to the inward Senses of the partakers of them) as by a publick recording of the matters of Divine Revelation by fuch a Person who is enabled to give the world all reasonable satisfaction, that what he did was not of any private defign of his own head; but that he was deputed to it by no less than Divine Authority. And therefore it stands to the highest reason, that where Divine Revelation is necessary for the certain requiring of Assent, the matter to be believed should have a certain uniform conveyance to Mens minds, rather than that perpetually New Revelations should be required for the making known of those things; which being once recorded, are not liable to fo many impost ures

impostures as the other way might have been under pretended Revelations. For then Men are not put to a continual Trial, of every Person pretending Divine Revelation, as to the evidences which he brings of Divine Authority, but the great matters of concernment being already recorded and attested by all rational evidence as to the truth of the things, their minds therein rest satisfied without being unders a continual hesitancy, lest the Revelation of one should contradict another.

velation unrecorded at all, but left them to be discovered in every Age by a spirit of prophecy, by such a multitude as might be fufficient to inform the world of the truth of the things; we cannot but conceive that an innumerable Company of croaking Enthulialts would be continually pretending Commissions from Heaven, by which the minds of Men would be left in continual distraction, because they would have no certain infallible rules given them, whereby to difference the good and evil spirit from each other. But now supposing God to inspire some particular Persons, not only to reveal, but to record Divine Truths, then whatever evidences can be brought attesting a Divine Revelation in them, will likewise prove the undoubted certainty and infallibility of those writings, it being impossible that Persons employed by a God of truth should make it their design to impose upon the world; which gives us a rational account, why the wife God did not fuffer the History of the world to lie still unrecorded, but made choice of fuch a person to record it, who gave abundant evidence to the world that he acted no private defign, but was peculiarly employed by God himself for the doing of it, as will appear afterwards. Besides, we find by our former Discourse, how liable the most certain Tradition is to be corrupted in progress of time, where there are no standing Records, though it were at first delivered by Persons of undoubted credit. For we have no reason to doubt, but that the Tradition of the old World, the flood and the confequences

of it, with the nature and worship of the true God, were at first spread over the greatest part of the world in its first Plantations; yet we see how soon for want of certain conveyance, all the ancient Tradition was corrupted and abused into the greatest Idolatry. Which might be less wondered at,

For supposing that God had left the matters of Divine Re- Sect. 2.

had it been only in those parts which were furthest remote from the feat of those grand Transactions; but thus we find it was even among those families who had the nearest residence to the place of them, and among those Persons who were not far off in a lineal descent from the Persons mainly concerned in them; as is most evident in the family out of which Abraham came (who was himself the tenth from Josh 24. 2. Noah) yet of them it is said, that they served other Gods. How unlikely then was it, that this Tradition should be afterwards preferved entire, when the People God had peculiarly chosen to himself, were so mixed among the Agyptians, and so prone to the Idolatries of the Nations round about them, and that even after God had given them a written Law attested with the greatest miracles? what would they have done then, had they never been brought forth of Agypt by fuch signs and wonders, and had no certain Records left to preserve the Memory of former Ages? Thus we fee how much it stands to the greatest reason, that so memorable things should be digested into facred Records.

Sect. 3.

We have as great certainty that Moses was the Author of the Records going under his name, as we can have of any matter of fact done at so great a distance of time from us We are to consider that there are two very distinct Questions to be thought of, concerning a Divine Revelation to any Perfon at a confiderable distance of time from us; and those are what evidences can be given that the matters recorded are of a true divine revelation; and what evidence we have of the truth of the matter of fact, that such things were recorded by such persons. They who do not carefully distinguish between these two Questions, will soon run themselves into an inextricable Labyrinth, when they either feek to understand themselves, or explain to others the grounds on which they believe the Scriptures to be the Word of God. The first step in order to which must be the proving the undoubted certainty of the matter of fact, or the truth of the History, that fuch persons were really existent, and did either do or record the things we fpeak of: After this, succeeds the other to prove, not only the real existence of the things, but that the persons who recorded the things, were affifted by an infallible Spirit; then there can be no reason at all to doubt, but those records

Chap. 1. The Truth of Scripture-History asserted.

103

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are the Word of God. The first of these, is, that which at present we enquire after, the certainty of the matter of sact, that the Records under the name of Moses were undoubtedly his. And here it will be most unreasonable for any to seek for further evidence and demonstration of it, than the matter to be proved is capable of. But if they should, I suppose we have sufficient reason to demonstrate the folly of such a demand, and that on these accounts.

1. Whoever yet undertook to bring matters of fact into Mathematical demonstrations, or thought he had ground to question the certainty of any thing that was not proved in a Mathematical way to him? who would ever undertake to prove that Archimedes was killed at Syracuse by any of the demonstrations he was then about? or that Euclide was the undoubted Author of the Geometry under his name? or do men question these things for want of such demonstrations? Yet this is all we at present desire, but the same liberty here

which is used in any thing of a like nature.

2. I demand of the person who denies this moral certainty to be sufficient for an assent, whether he doth question every thing in the world, which he was not present at the doing of himself? If he be peremptorily resolved to believe nothing but what he sees, he is fit for nothing but a Voyage to Anticyra, or to be soundly purged with Hellebore to free him from those cloudy humours that make him suspect the whole world to be an imposture. But we cannot suppose any man so destitute of reason, as to question the truth of every matter of sact which he doth not see himself; if he doth then firmly believe any thing, there must be supposed sufficient grounds to induce him to such a belief. And then what ground can there be to question the certainty of such things which have as great evidence as any of those things have which he most firmly believes? and this is all we desire from him.

3. Do we not fee that the most concerning and weighty actions of mens lives, are built on no other foundation than this moral certainty? yet men do not in the least question the truth of the thing they rely upon: As is most evident in all titles to estates derived from Ancestors, either by donation or purchase: In all trading, which goes upon the moral certainty, that there are such places as the Indies, or France, or Spain, &c.

In

Sect. 4.

In all journeyings, that there is fuch a place, as that I am going to, and this is the way thither; for these we have but this moral certainty; for the contrary to both these are possible, and the affirmatives are indemonstrable. In eating and drinking there is a possibility of being poisoned by every bit of meat or drop of drink; do we therefore continually doubt. whether we shall be so or no? Chiefly this is seen in all natural affection and piety in Children towards Parents, which undoubtedly suppose the truth of that, which it was impossible they could be witnesses of themselves; viz. their coming out of their Mothers wombs. And doth any one think this fufficient ground to question his Mother, because the contrary is impossible to be demonstrated to him? In short, then, either we must destroy all Historical faith out of the world, and believe nothing (though never fo much attested) but what we fee our felves or elfe we must acknowledge, that a moral certainty is a sufficient foundation for an undoubted assent. not such a one cui non potest subesse falsum, but such a one cui non subest dubium, i. e. an assent undoubted, though not infallible. By which we see what little reason the Atheist on one fide can have to question the truth of the Scriptures. as to the History of it; and what little ground the Papists on the other side have to make a pretence of the necessity of infallibility, as to the proposal of such things where moral certainty is sufficient, that is, to the matter of fact.

Which I now come to prove, as to the fubiest

Which I now come to prove, as to the subject in hand; viz. That the writings of Moses are undoubtedly his, which I prove by a two-fold Argument: I. An universal consent of persons, who were best able to know the truth of the things in question. 2. The setling of a Commonwealth upon the Laws delivered by Moses. I. The universal Consent of persons most capable of judging in the Case in hand. I know nothing the most scrupulous and inquisitive mind can possible desire in order to satisfaction, concerning any matter of sact, beyond an universal Consent of such persons who have a greater capacity of knowing the truth of it than we can have: And those are all such persons who have lived nearest those times when the things were done, and have best understood the Affairs of the times when the things were pretended to be done. Can we possibly conceive, that among the people of the Jews,

who

who were so exceedingly prone to transgress the Law of Moles. and to fall into Idolatry, but if there had been any the least suspicion of any fallity or imposture in the writings of Moles. the ring-leaders of their revolts would have fufficiently promulged it among them, as the most plausible plea to draw them off from the worship of the true God? Can we think that a Nation and Religion so maligned as the Fewish were, could have escaped discovery, if there had been any deceit in it, when so many lay in wait continually to expose them to all Contumelies imaginable? Nay, among themselves in their frequent Apostalies, and occasions given for such a pretence, how comes this to be never heard of, nor in the least questioned, whether the Law was undoubtedly of Moses his writing or no? What an excellent plea would this have been for Feroboam's Calves in Dan and Bethel: for the Samaritans Temple on Mount Gerizim, could any the least suspicion have been raised among them, concerning the authentickness of the fundamental Records of the Fewish Commonwealth? And which is most observable, the Fews who were a people strangely suspicious and incredulous, while they were fed and cloathed with miracles, yet could never find ground to question this. Nay, and Moles himself, we plainly see, was hugely envied by many of the I/raelites even in the wilderness, as is evident in the Conspiracy of Corab and his complices, and that on this very ground, that he took too much upon him; how unlikely then is it, that amidst so many enemies he should dare to venture any thing into publick records, which was not most undonbtedly true; or undertake to prescribe a Law to oblige the people to posterity? Or that after his own Age any thing should come out under his name, which would not be presently detected by the emulatours of his glory? What then, is the thing it self incredible? surely not, that Moses should write the records we speak of. Were not they able to understand the truth of it? What? not those, who were in the fame Age, and conveyed it down by a certain tradition to posterity? Or did not the Israelites all constantly believe it? What? not they, who would sooner part with their lives and fortunes, than admit any variation or alteration as to their Law?

F.

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Well, but if we should suppose the whole Fewish Nation partial to themselves, and that out of honour to the memory of so great a person as Moses, they should attribute their ancient Laws and Records to him: Which is all that Infidelity its self can imagine in this Case; Yet this cannot be with any shadow of reason pretended. For,

the fews under Moses his name? Certainly they, who undertake to contradict that which is received by common consent, must bring stronger and clearer evidence than that on which that consent is grounded; or else their exceptions deserve to be rejected with the highest indignation. What proof can be then brought, that not only the fewish Nation, but the whole Christian world hath been so lamentably befooled to believe those things with an undoubted assent, which are on-

ly the contrivances of fome cunning men?

2. At what time could these things be contrived? Either while the memory of Moles and his actions were remaining. or afterwards. First, how could it possibly be, when his memory was remaining? for then all things were so fresh in their memories, that it was impossible a thing of this universal nature could be forged of him. If after, then I demand. whether the people had observed the Law of Moles before or no? if not, then they must certainly know it at the time of its promulgation to be counterfeit; for had it been from Moses, it would have been observed before their times; if it was observed before, then either continually down from the time of Moles, or not? If continually down, then it was of Moses his doing, if we suppose him to have had that Authority among the people which the objection supposeth; if not, then still the nearer Moses his time, the more difficult such a counterfeiting could be; because the Constitutions which Mofes had left among them, would have remained in their memories, whereby they would easily reject all pretences and counterfeits.

3. How can we conceive the Nation of the Jews would have ever embraced such a Law, had it not been of Moles his enacting among them in that state of time when he did? For then the people were in sittest capacity to receive a Law, being grown a great people, and therefore necessary to have

Laws;

Laws; newly delivered from bondage, and therefore wanting Laws of their own; and entring into a fetled state of Commonwealth, which was the most proper season of giving Laws.

Sect. 6.

These considerations make it so clear, that it is almost impossible, to conceive the Nation of the Jews could have their Laws given to them but at the time of their being in the wilderness, before they were settled in Canaan. For suppose we at present, to gratifie so far the objection, that these Laws were brought forth long after the constitution of the government and the national fettlement, under Moles his name; how improbable, nay how impossible is it to alter the fundamental Laws of a Nation after long settlement? what confusion of interests doth this bring? what disturbance among all sorts of people, who must be disseised of their rights, and brought to fuch strange unwonted customs so seemingly against their interests, as many of the Constitutions among the Fews were? For can we imagine, that a people always devoted to their own interest, would after it had been quietly setled in their Land, by Constitutions after the custom of other Nations, presently under a pretence of a copy of Laws found (that were pretended to be given by one in former Ages of great esteem, called Moses) throw open all their former inclosures, and part with their former Laws, for these of which they have no evidence, but the words of those that told it them? We have a clear instance for this among the Romans; although there were great evidence given of the undoubted certainty, that the Books found in Numa's grave by Petilius were his, yet because they were adjudged by the Senate to be against the present Laws, they were without further enquiry adjudged to be burnt. Was not here the greatest likelihood that might be, that these should have taken place among the Romans, for the great veneration for wisdom which Numa was in among them, and the great evidence that these were certain remainders of his, wherein he gave a true account of the superstitions in use among them? yet lest the state should be unfetled by it, they were prohibited so much as a publick view, when the Prator had fworn they were against the established Laws. Can we then conceive the Fewish Nation would have embraced so burdensome and ceremonious a Law as Moses's was, had it been brought among them in fuch a way as the Books

of Numa, though with all imaginable evidence, that it was undoubtedly his, especially when they were engaged to the observation of some Laws or Customs already, by which their Commonwealth had been established? And withall these Laws of Moses seeming so much against the interest and good husbandry of a Nation, as all the neighbour Nations thought, who for that accused them to be an idle and floathful people, as they judged by their resting wholly one day in seven, the great and many solemn feasts they had, the repairing of all the males to Terusalem thrice a year; the Sabbatical years, years of Fubilee.&c. These things were apparently against the interest of such a Nation, whose great subsistence was upon pasturage and agriculture. So that it is evident these Laws respected not the outward interest of the Nation, and so could not be the contrivance of any Politicians among them, but did immediately aim at the honor of the God whom they ferved, for whom they were to part even with their civil interests: The doing of which by a people generally taken notice of for a particular Love of their own concernments, is an impregnable argument these Laws could not take place among them, had they not been given by Moses at the time of their unsettlement, and that their future settlement did depend upon their present observation of them; which is an evidence too that they could be of no less that divine original: Which was more than I was to prove at prefent.

Sect. 7.

De Sublim.

should the neighbour Nations about the Fews notwithstanding the hatred of the Jewish Religion, retain so venerable an opinion of the wisdom of Moses? The Ægyptians accounted him one of their Priests (which notes the esteem they had of his learning) as appears by the testimonies produced C. App. l. 1. Bib. out of Charemon and Manetho by Josephus. Diodorus Siculus 1. 1. Geog. 16. speaks of him with great respect among the famous Legislatours, and fo doth Strabo, who speaks in commendation of the Religion established by him. The testimony of Longinus is sufficiently known, that Moses was no man of any vulgar wit (in & now) aving) Chalcidius calls him sapientissimus Moses (although I must not diffemble that Chalcidius hath been, I think, undefervedly reckoned among heathen writers, though he comments on Plato's Timæus, it being most probable that he was a Chri-Stian

4. Were not these writings undoubtedly Moses; whence

fian Platonift, which might more probably make Vaninus call V. Vof. de Idol. him circumforaneum blateronem) but though we exempt Chal. 1.2. c. 45. cidius out of the number of those Heathens, who have born testimony to the wisdom of Moses, yet there are number enough besides him produced by Justin Martyr, Cyril, and others, whose evidence is clear and full to make us undoubt- V. Grot. An. de edly believe, that there could never have been so universal l. 2. and uninterrupted a tradition concerning the writings and Laws of Moles, had they not been certainly his, and conveyed down in a continual fuccession from his time to our present age. Which will be yet more clear, if we confider in the fecond place, that the national Constitution and settlement of the Jews, did depend on the truth of the Laws and Writings of Moses. Can we have more undoubted evidence, that there were fuch persons as Solon, Lycurgus, and Numa, and that the Laws bearing their names were theirs, than the History of the feveral Commonwealths of Athens, Sparta, and Rome, who were governed by those Laws? When writings are not of general concernment, they may be more easily counterfeited; but when they concern the rights, privileges, and government of a Nation, there will be enough whose interest will lead them to prevent impostures. It is no easie matter to forge a Magna Charta, and to invent Laws; mens caution and prudence is never so quick-sighted as in matters which concern their estates and freeholds. The general interest of men lies contrary to fuch impostures, and therefore they will prevent their obtaining among them. Now the Laws of Moses are incorporated into the very Republick of the Fews, and their sublistence and Government depends upon them, their Religion and Laws are fo interwoven one with the other, that one cannot be broken off from the other. Their right to their temporal possessions in the land of Canaan depends on their owning the Sovereignty of God who gave them to them; and on the truth of the History recorded by Moses concerning the promises made to the Patriarchs. So that on that account it was impossible those Laws should be counterfeit on which the welfare of a Nation depended, and according to which they were governed ever fince they were a Nation. So that I shall now take it to be fufficiently proved, that the writings under the name of Moses were undoubtedly his; for none, who acknowledge the

the Laws to have been his, can have the face to deny the History, there being so necessary a connexion between them; and the book of Genesis being nothing else but a general and very necessary introduction to that which follows. I deny not but the history of Moses might, according to the tradition of the Tews, and the belief of others, be revised by Ezra, or the men of the great Synagogue after the Fews return from captivity, as appears by the names of places, and other passages not suitable to the time of Moses; but I utterly deny that the Pentateuch was not of Moles his penning or that it was only a Collection out of the Diaries and Annals of the Nation: For throughout the Scripture the very historical pasfages are attributed to Moses, and in all probability the Samaritan Pentateuch bears date before the Captivity; by which it still appears that those Books are truly the Books of Moles.

CHAP. II.

Moses his certain knowledge of what he writ.

The third Hypothesis concerns the certainty of the matter of Moses his History; that gradually proved: First, Moses his knowledge cleared, by his education, and experience, and certain information. His education in the wisdom of Ægypt; what that was. The old Ægyptian learning enquired into; the conveniences for it. Of the Ægyptian Priests. Moses reckoned among them for his knowledge. The Mathematical, Natural, Divine, and Moral learning of Ægypt: their Political wisdom most considerable. The advantage of Moses above the Greek Philosophers, as to wisdom and reason. Moses himself an eye-witness of most of his history: the certain uninterrupted tradition of the other part among the Jews, manifested by rational evidence.

TAving thus far cleared our way, we come to the third Hypothesis, which is, There are as manifest proofs of the undoubted truth and certainty of the History recorded by Moses, as any can be given concerning any thing which we yield the firmest assent unto. Here it must be considered, that we proceed in a way of rational evidence to prove the truth of the thing in hand, as to which, if in the judgment of impartial persons the arguments produced be ftrong enough to convince an unbyaffed mind; It is not material, whether every wrangling Atheist will fit down contented with them. For usually perfons of that inclination rather than judgment, are more refolved against light, than inquisitive after it, and rather seek to stop the chinks at which any light might come in than open the *mindows* for the free and chearful entertainment of it. It will certainly be fufficient to make it appear, that no man can deny the truth of that part of Scripture which we are now speaking of, without offering manifest violence to his own faculties, and making it appear to the world, that he is one wholly forfaken of his own reason: which will be satisfactorily done, if we can clear these things: First, that it was morally impossible Moses should be ignorant of the things he undertook to write.

SeEt. I. Hyp. 3.

write of, and so be deceived himself. Secondly, That it was utterly impossible he should have any design in deceiving others in reporting it. Thirdly, That it is certain from all rational evidence, that he hath not deceived the world, but that his History is undoubtedly true. First, That it was morally impossible Moses should be deceived himself, or be ignorant of the things which he writ of. Two things are requisite to prevent a Man's being deceived himself. First, That he be a person of more than ordinary judgment, wildom, and knowledge. Secondly, That he have sufficient information concerning the things he undertakes to write of. If either of these two be wanting, it is possible for a man of integrity to be deceived; for an bonest beart hath not always an Urim and Thummim upon it; nor is fidelity always furnished with the acutest intellectuals. The simplicity of the Dove is as liable to be deceived its felf as the subtilty of the Serpeni is to deceive others; but where the wisdom of the Serpent is, to prevent being deceived, and the Doves innocency in not deceiving others, there are all the qualifications can be defired in any one who undertakes only to tell the Truth. First, Then that Moses was a person of a great understanding, and sufficiently qualified to put a difference between truth and falshood, will appear, first, from the ingenuity of his Education; Secondly, from the ripenels of his judgment, and greatness of his experience when he penned these things.

First, We begin with his Education. And here we require at present no surther assent to be given to what is reported concerning Moses in Scripture, than what we give to Plutarch's lives, or any other relations concerning the actions of persons who lived in sormer Ages. Two things then we find recorded in Scripture concerning Moses his Education; that he was brought up in the Court of Agypt, and that he was skilled in all the learning of the Agyptians; and these two will abundantly prove the ingenuity of his Education, viz. That he was a person both conversant in civil Affairs, and acquainted with

the abstruser parts of all the Agyptian wisdom.

And I confess there is nothing to me which doth advance so much the repute of the ancient Agyptian Learning, as that the Spirit of God in Scripture should take so much notice of it, as to set forth a person (otherwise renowned for greater accomplishments) by his skill in this. For if it be below the wildom

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Sect. 2.

Heb. 11. 25.

Act. 7. 22.

wildom of any ordinary person, to set forth a person by that which in its felf is no matter of commendation; how much less can we imagine it of that infinite wisdom which inspired Stephen in that Apology which he makes for himself against the Libertines, who charged him with contempt of Moles and the Law? And therefore certainly this was some very observable thing, which was brought in as a fingular commendation of Moles, by that person whose design was to make it appear how high an esteem he had of him. And hence it appears that Learning is not only in its felf a great accomplishment of humane nature, but that it ought to be looked upon with veneration, even in those who have excellencies of a higher nature to commend them. If a Pearl retains its excellency when it lies upon a dung hill, it can certainly lose nothing of its lustre by being fet in a Crown of gold; if Learning be commendable in an Agyptian, it is no less in Moses, where it is enamelled with more noble perfections, than of it felf it can reach unto. All the question is, Whether the ancient learning of the Agyptians was fuch as might be supposed to improve the reason and understanding of men to such an height, as thereby to make them more capable of putting a difference between truth and fallhood? Whether it were fuch an overflowing Nilus as would enrich the understandings of all those who were in a capacity to receive its streams? The truth is, there want not grounds of suspicion, that the old Agyptian Learning was not of that elevation which the present distance of our Age makes us apt to think it was. And a learned man hath in a fet discourse endeavoured to shew the great defects that there were in it: Neither can it, I think, be denyed, but according Conringius de to the reports we have now concerning it, some parts of their Hermet. Medic. Learning were frivolous, others obscure, a great deal Magical, c. 10, 11, 12. and the rest short of that improvement, which the accession of the parts and industry of after Ages gave unto it. But yet it is again as evident, that some parts of learning were invented by the Egyptians, others much improved, and that the Greeks did at first fet up with the flock they borrowed out of Agypt, and that learning chiefly flourished there, when there was (I had almost said) an Egyptian darkness of Ignorance overspreading the face of Greece as well as other Nations.

Sect. 3.

Which will appear by these considerations, the great antiquity of their repute for Learning, the great advantages they had for promoting it, and the parts of Learning most in use among them. This though it may feem a digression here, will yet tend to promote our defign, by shewing thereby how qualified and accomplished Moses was to deliver to the world an history of ancient times. If we believe Macrobius, there was no people in the world could vye for Learning with the Æ-Saturn. 1.1 cap. gyptians, who makes Agypt in one place, the Mother of all

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Arts, and in another, the Agyptians omnium Philosophia dif-Scip.l. 1. c. 19. ciplinarum parentes, the Fathers of the Philosophick Sciences; he derives elsewhere the original of all Astronomy from them, quos constat primos omnium calum metiri, & scrutari ausos: though it be more probable that the Nativity even of Astrono-

cap. 21.

my it felf was first calculated by the Chaldeans, from whom it was conveyed to the Agyptians. He likewise appropriates all divine knowledge to them, where he faith they were So-

14.1.7.6.13.

Saturn I.I.cap. li rerum divinarum conscii, and after calls Ægypt, divinarum omnium disciplinarum compotem. It is sufficiently notorious what great repute the Ægyptian Learning hath been in, with some in our latter times, in that our Chymists look upon it as the greatest honour to their profession, that they think they can claim kindred of the old Egyptian Learning, and derive the pedigree of their Chymistry from the old Ægyptian Hermes. But that vain pretence is sufficiently resuted by the fore-mentioned learned man Conringius, in his Tract on this subject, de Hermetica Medicina. Franciscus Patricius professeth himself so great an admirer of the old Agyptian Learning, that he thought it would be no bad exchange, if the Peripatetick Philosophy were extruded, and the old Agyptian received instead of it. But the world is now grown wifer, than to receive his Hermes Trismegistus for the Author of the old Agyptian Philosophy, the credit of his Author being for ever blafted, and the doctrine contained in the Books under his name, manifested to be ameer Cento, a confused mixture of the Christian, Platonick, and Ægyptian doctrine together. So that we could hardly maintain the justness of the repute of the ancient Agyptian Learning from any thing now extant of it; but yet we fee no reason to question it, especially since it is so honourably spoken of in Sacred Writ, and seems in it to have been

been made the standard and measure of humane wisdom. For which we have this observable testimony, that when the wisdom of Solomon is spoken of with the greatest advantage and commendation, it is fet forth with this character, that it exceeded the wisdom of all the children of the East Country, and all I King. 4. 29. the wisdom of Ægypt. Whence it is most natural and easie 30, 31. to argue, That certainly their learning must be accounted the greatest at that time in the world; or else it could not have been inferred, that Solomon was mifer than all men, because his wisdom excelled theirs, unless we suppose their wisdom to have been the greatest in that age of the world, when the wisdom of the Gracians (although in that time Homer is supposed to flourish) was not thought worthy the taking notice of. We see from hence then, as from an irrefragable testimony, that the wisdom of the Agyptians anciently was no trivial Pedantry, nor meer superstitious and Magical rites, but that there was fomething in it folid and substantial, or it had not been worth triumphing over by the misdom of Solomon: It being true of that, what Lipsius faith of the Roman Empire, Quicquid dignum De Magnitud. vinci videbatur, vicit; catera non tam non potuit quam contempsit; Rom. l. 1. c. 3. it was an argument of some great worth, that it was over-

topped and conquered by it.

Thus we see how just the repute of the ancient Agyptian Learning is from Testimony, and we shall find as great reason for it, when we consider the great advantages the Agyptians had for promoting of Learning among them. Two ways men come to knowledge, either by tradition from others, or by obfervation of their own; what the Egyptians had the first way, will be spoken to afterwards; we now consider the latter of these. All knowledge arising from observation, must be either of those Sciences which immediately conduce to the benefit of mens lives, or such whose end is to improve mens rational fa- vid Arist. Me. culties in the knowledge of things. The former necessity will taph. 1. l. c. 1. put men upon the finding out, the latter require fereffum & otia, freedom from other imployments, a mind addicted to them, and industry in the study of them, and a care to preserve their inventions in them. The study of Geometry among the Ægyptians, owed its original to necessity; for the river Nile being swelled with the showers falling in Athiopia, and thence annually over-flowing the Country of Ægypt, and by its vio-

Sect. 4

Herod. 1. 2. Diod. l. I. Strab. l. 17. Cal. Rhodi 1 18. 6. 34.

Sect. 5.

lence overturning all the marks they had to distinguish their lands, made it necessary for them upon every abatement of the flood to survey their Lands, to find out every one his own by the quantity of the ground upon the survey. The necessity of which put them upon a more diligent enquiry into that study, that thereby they might attain to some exactness in that, which was to be of fuch necessary, constant and perpetual use. Thence we find the invention of Geometry particularly attributed by Herodotus, Diodorus, Straba and others. to the Agyptians. This skill of theirs they after improved into a greater benefit, viz. the conveying the water of Nile into those places where it had not overflown to so great a height, as to give them hopes of an enfuing plenty; which they did by the artificial cutting of feveral Chanels for that end, wherein, faith Strabo, the Agyptians Art and Industry out-went Nature it self. By this likewise they obferved the height of the over-flowing of the river, whereby they knew what harvest to expect the following year; which they did by a Well near Memphis (from the use of it called New New Yellow) upon the walls of which were the marks of feveral cubits, which they observe and publish it to all, that they might provide themselves accordingly. We see what grounds there are, even from profit and advantage, to make us believe that the Ægyptians were skilled in Geometry.

and the knowledge relating thereto.

And for the promoting of all other knowledge whose end is Contemplation, the very constitution of their Commonwealth did much conduce thereto: For thereby it was provided that there should always be a sufficient number of persons freed from all other Employments, who might devote themselves to a fedulous enquiry into the Natures of things. Such were the Ægyptian Priests, who by the peculiar nature of the Ægyptian Superstitions, were freed from that burdensome service of sacrificing beafts, which the Priests of other Nations were continually employed about, and fo they enjoyed not only an easie but a very honourable employment; for they were the perions of the greatest honour, esteem, and authority among the Ægyptians, of which rank, as far as I can find, all were accounted, who were not Souldiers, Husbandmen, or Artificers. For Strabo mentions no Nobility at all in Ægypt distinct

Geogr. 1. 17.

Chap. 2. The Truth of Scripture History afferted. distinct from the Priests; for he divides the whole Commonwealth into Souldiers, Husbandmen and Priests. And telling us that the other two were employed about matters of war, and the King's revenues in peace, he adds, of hisperis x orλοσορίαν ήσκεν κι α ερνομίαν, όμιλη αί τε τη βαπλέων ήσαν, The Priests minded the study of Philosophy and Astronomy, and conversed most with their Kings: And after, speaking of their Kings being studied in their arts as well as others of the Friests, he adds, ued wo le autois maeiwo o Bio, with whom they spent most of their lives. Agreeable to this, Plutarch tells us, that De 18d. & Ofr. the Kings themselves were often Priests; and adds, out of Hecatiens, that the Kings used to drink wine by measure, isolie onles, because they were Priests; for, as he faith, the Kings of Agypt were always chosen, either out of the rank of Priests or Souldiers, To who di and cian, To of dia ropian hiss at inpa ni nμω έχον [· those two orders being of the greatest honour, the one for valour, and the other for wildom; and if the King were chosen out of the Souldiers, he was presently entred among the I riefts, to learn their mystical Sciences. Diodorus indeed Lib. I. feems to reckon some great persons after the Priests, and distinct from the Souldiery; but if he means by these any other than some of the chief of the other two professions, I must fay, as Casaubon doth in another case of Diodorus, Sane Stra- Not. in Strab. bonis auctoritas multis siculis apud me prævalet. Diodorus his 1, 17. testimony is not to be weighed with Strabo's. From hence we may understand the reason why that Potipherah, whose daughter Foseph married, is called [7], which some render the Priest, Gen. 41. 45. others the Prince of On; but these two we see are very consistent, their Priests being their great Princes; and Heliopolis, or On, of which Potipherah was Prince or Priest, being the chief Seat and University of the Priests of Ægypt. Now it is evident from Clemens Alexandrinus, that the Ægyptians did strom. 1. s. not communicate their mysteries promiscuously to all, but only to fuch as were in succession to the Crown, or else to those

of the Priests and their Children, who were most apt and fit for them, both by their diet, instruction, and family. For this was unalterably observed among them, that there was a continued succession of a profession in their several families, both of Priests, Souldiers, and Husbandmen, whereby they kept their feveral orders without any mixture or confusion, which

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is confessed both by Herodotus and Diodorus? So that by this Horod. L. s. Diod. l.1. 6.71. constitution Learning was among them confined to the Priests. which highly advanceth the probability of that tradition, pre-

ferved among the Agyptians concerning Moles (which likewise strongly proves our present design) viz. Manetho's Re-L. I. C. App.

cords, as Fosephus tells us, that Moses was one of the Priests at Heliopolis, and that his name among them was Ofarfiphus, who changing his name, was called Moses; and in the time of Amenophis conducted the leprous people out of Agypt (fo the Agyptians out of their hatred of the Israelites call them.) And Charemon, another Agyptian Priest in the same Author. calls Moses a Scribe, and Joseph (by whom probably he means Foshua) a sacred Scribe, and faith, that the Agyptian name of Moses was Tisithen, and of Foseph, Poteseph. Now this tradition did in all probability arise from the repute of Moses his learning and wisdom; which being among them proper to their Priests, they thence ascribed that name to him, although

probably he might come to the knowledge of all their mysteries. from the relation he had to Pharaob's daughter.

Sect. 6. De vita Mosis.

p. 39.

Iambl. de vit. Pyth. 1. 1. 29. De vit. Pyth. p. 182.

G:0gr. 1. 17.

We come now to consider the parts of the Agyptian learning, in which the Scripture tells us Moses was killed: This by Philo Judaus is branched into Arithmetick, Geometry, Mufick, and Hieroglyphical Philosophy: But Sixtus Senensis more Bibliothee. l. 2. comprehensively from Diodorus, Diogenes Laertius, and others, divides it into four parts, Mathematical, Natural, Divine and Moral. Their skill in the Mathematical parts of Learning hath been partly shewed already, and might be more largely from that skill in them, which the Gracians gained from the Ægyptians, as both Iamblicus and Porphyrie speak of Pythagoras, that he gained his skill in Geometry chiefly from the Aigyptians: For these, as Porphyrie saith, of a long time had been very studious of Geometry, as the Phanicians of Arithmetick, and the Chaldeans of Astronomy. But Iamblichus (and I think deservedly) takes notice of the no No mego Jexlov. the difficult access of the Agyptian Priests, especially as to acquaintance with their mysteries; and so Strabo calls them. μυςτικές η Νουεταδότες, such who concealed their learning under many symbols, and were not easily drawn to unfold it. And yet we might think the two and twenty years time which Pythagor as is thought to have spent among them, had been enough

to have infinuated himfelf into their atmost acquaintance, and to have drawn from them the knowledge of their greatest mysteries; but yet we have no great reason to think he did, if we believe the story in Diogenes Laertius of his facrificing an Hecatomb for the finding out of that demonstration, which is now contained in the 47. proposition of the first of Euclide. Yet this did not abate the Gracians esteem of the Agyptians Mathematical Learning; for in Plato's time, Eudoxus Cnidius went into Agypt on purpose to acquire it there; and Democritus his boast, that none of the Arsepedonaptie in Agypt (so their Priests were called, as Clemens Alexandrinus and Eusebius tell Euseb. Prapar. us, who relate the story) exceeded him in the Mathematicks, 1, 10, 6, 2, by which it may be at least inferred, that they were then in greatest esteem for them. Their great skill in Astronomy is Diod. L. 1. c. 49, attested by Diodorus, Strabo, Herodotus, and others, and by 50. Strab.1.17. their finding out the course of the year by the motion of the Sun, which was the invention of the Heliopolitan Priests. How much they valued Geography, appears from Clemens his Herod. 1. 2. description of the isegregunalers, or sacred Scribe in the solemn procession; for he was required to be skilled in Hieroglyphicks, strom, I. 6. Cosmography, Geography, the motions of the Planets, the Choro-p.631, ed. Pm. graphy of Ægypt, and description of the Nile. Eustathius in his Notes on Dionysius, attributes the invention of Geographical Tables to Sefoftris, who caused the Lands he had conquered to be described in Tables, and so communicated to the Ægyptians, and from them to others. Their skill in natural Philosophy could not be very great, because of their Magick and Superstition, whereby they were hindred from all experiments in those natural things which they attributed a Divimity to; but they feem to have been more exact and curious in natural history; for, any prodigies, or any thing that was anomalous in nature, they did, faith Strabo, oina mean movesteen avaoreen eis ra irpa vegunala, with a great deal of curiosity insert it in their facred records, and Herodotus adds, that more things of that nature are observed by them than by any other Nation; which, faith he, they not only diligently preserve, but frequently compare together, and from a similitude of prodigies gather a similitude of events. But that which gained the Agyptians the greatest repute abroad, seems to have been their early skill in Phylick, which is so much spoken of by Homer, Plato.

Plato, Herodotus, Flutarch, Diegenes Laertius, and others, that it were impertinent troubling a Reader's patience with the proof of that which is so generally confessed. A great evidence of the antiquity of this study among them is (if Manetho may be so far credited) that Athothis, the second King of the first Dynasty of the Thinites, was a Physician himself, and writ some Books of Anatomy; and the second King of the third Dynasty of the Memphites, was, for his skill in Physick, ho-Nat. bift. 1.19, noured among them by the name of Æ sculapius. Pliny affirms c.5. 1.29. c.1. it to have been the custom of their Kings to cause dead bodies to be diffected, to find out the nature of difeases; and elsewhere tells us, that the original of Physick among them was from the relations of those who by any remedy were cured of any disease, which for a memorial to posterity were recorded in their Temples. Their hieroglyphical and mystical Learning hath made the greatest noise in the world, and hath the least of substance in it; which whoever will not be convinced of without perusal of Kircher's Oedipus Agyptiacus, will at last find it fully done to his hand by the fuccesses endeavours of that otherwise learned man. I cannot think any rational man could think that fludy worth his pains, which at the highest can amount but to a conjecture; and when it is come to that with a great deal of pains, it is nothing but some ordinary and trivial observation. As in that famous Hieroglyphick of Diospolis, so much spoken of by the Ancients, where was a Child to express coming into the world, an old man for going out of it, an Hawk for God, an Hippopotamus for hatred, and a Crocodile for impudence, and all to express this venerable Apoththegm, O ve that come into the world, and that go out of it, God hates impudence. And therefore certainly this kind of Learning deserves the highest form among the difficiles Nuga; and all these Hieroglyphicks put together, will make but one

There is yet one part of Learning more among them, which the Ægyptians are esteemed for, which is the Political and civil part of it, which may better be called wisdom than most of the fore-going; two things speak much the wisdom of a Nation, good Laws, and a prudent management of them: their Laws are highly commended by Strabo and Diodorus; and it is none of the least commendations of them, that Solon

good one, and that should be for Labour lost.

Sect. 7.

and Lycurgus borrowed so many of their constitutions from them; and for the prudent management of their government, as the continuance of their state so long in peace and quietness, is an invincible demonstration of it; so the report given of them in Scripture adds a further testimony to it; for therein the King of Ægypt is called the Son of the Wife, as well as the Son of ancient Kings; and his Counsellors are called wise Counsellors of Pharaoh, and the wife men; whereby a more than ordinary prudence and policy must be understood. Can we now imagine fuch a person as Moses was, bred up in all the ingenuous literature of Ægypt, conversant among their wisest persons in Pharaoh's Court, having thereby all advantages to improve himself, and to understand the utmost of all that they knew, should not be able to pass a judgment between a mere pretence and imposture, and real and important Truths? Can we think that one who had interest in so great a Court, all advantages of raising himself therein, should willingly forsake all the pleafures and delights at present, all his hopes and advantages, for the future, were he not fully perfuaded of the certain and undoubted truth of all those things which are recorded in his books? Is it possible a man of ordinary wisdom should venture himself upon so hazardous, unlikely and dangerous employment, as that was Moses undertook, which could have no probability of success, but only upon the belief that that God who appeared unto him, was greater than all the Gods of Ægypt, and could carry on his own defign by his own power, maugre all the opposition which the Princes of the world could make against it? And what possible ground can we have to think that fuch a person who did verily believe the truth of what God revealed unto him, should dare to write any otherwise than as it was revealed unto him? If there had been any thing repugnant to common reason in the history of the Creation, the fall of man, the universal deluge, the propagation of the world by the sons of Noah, the history of the Patriarchs, had not Moses rational faculties as well as we? nay, had he them not far better improved than any of ours are? and was not he then able to judge what was fuitable to reason, and what not? and can we think he would then deliver any thing inconsistent with reason or undoubted tradition then, when the Ægyptian Priests might fo readily and plainly har triumphed over him, by difcovering

Ifa. 19. 11,12

covering the fallhood of what he wrote? Thus we fee that Moses was as highly qualified as any of the acutest Heather Philosophers could be, for discerning truth from falshood; nav. in all probability he far excelled the most renowned of the Gracian Philosophers in that very kind of learning wherewith they made fo great noise in the world, which was originally Ægyptian, as is evident in the whole series of the Gracian Philosophers, who went age after age to Ægypt, to get some fcraps of that learning there, which Moses could not have but full meals of, because of his high place, great interest, and power in Ægypt. And must those hungry Philosophers then become the only Masters of our reason, and their distates be received as the fense and voice of nature, which they either received from uncertain tradition, or else delivered in opposition to it, that they might be more taken notice of in the world? Must an adros foa be confronted with, Thus saith the Lord? and a few pitifull symbols vye authority with divine commands? and Ex nihilo nihil fit be fooner believed than, In the beginning God created the Heavens and the Earth? What irrefragable evidence of reason is that so consident a presumption built upon, when it can fignifie nothing without this hypothesis. That there is nothing but matter in the world? and let this first be proved, and we will never flick to grant the other. I may confidently fay, the great gullery of the world hath been, taking philosophical distates for the standard of reason, and unproved hypotheles for certain foundations for our discourse to rely upon. And the feeking to reconcile the mysteries of our faith to these, hath been that which hath almost destroyed it, and turned our Religion into a mere philosophical speculation. But of this elsewhere. We see then that insisting merely on the accomplishment and rational perfections of the persons who speak, we have more reason to yield credit to Moses in his history, than to any Philosophers in their speculations.

And that which in the next place speaks Moses to be a perfon of wisdom, and judgment, and ability to find out truth, was his age and experience when he delivered these things to the world. He vented no crude and indigested conceptions, no sudden and temerarious fancies, the usual issues of teeming and juvenile wits; he lived long enough to have experience to try, and indement to distinguish a mere outside and varnish, from what

Sett. 8.

was folid and fubstantial. We cannot then have the least ground of suspicion, that *Moses* was any ways unsit to discern truth from falshood, and therefore was capable of judging the one from the other.

But though persons be never so highly accomplisht for parts, learning, and experience, yet if they want due information of the certainty of the things they deliver, they may be still deceived themselves; and if they preserve it for posterity, be guilty of deceiving others. Let us now therefore see whether Moses had not as great advantages for understanding the truth of his History, as he had judgment to discern it. And concerning all those things contained in the four last books of his, to his own death, it was impossible any should have greater than himself, writing nothing but what he was pars magna himfelf of, what he faw, and heard, and did; and can any testimony be defired greater than his whose actions they were, or who was present at the doing of them, and that not in any private way; but in the most publick capacity? For although private persons may be present at great actions, yet they may be guilty of mif-representing them, for want of understanding all circumstances precedent, and subsequent, or for want of understanding the designs of the chief instruments of action: but when the person himself, who was the chief in all, shall undertake to write an exact History of it, what evidence can be defired more certain than that is, that there could be no defect as to information concerning what was done? The only scruple then that can be made, must be concerning the passages of former times which Moses relates. And here I doubt not but to make it appear, that infifting only on all that can be defired in a bare Historian (fetting alide Divine revelation) he had as true and certain information of the History of those former ages, as any one can have of things at that distance from themselves; and that is, by a certain uninterrupted tradition of them, which will appear more clear and evident in that Nation of which Moses was, than in any other Nation in the world: And that on these two accounts: first, The undoubted lineal descent from Father to Son in the Fewish Nation. Secondly, Their interest lying so much in the preserving this tradition entire and war and

First, That there was a certain unmixed lineal descent from Sect. 9.

Father to Son in the Tewish Nation: the great cause of most of the confusion in the tradition of other Nations, was the frequent mixing of feveral families one with another; now that God might as it were on purpose satisfie the world of the Israelites capacity to preserve the tradition entire, he prohibited their mixture by marriages with the people of other Nations and families. So that in Moles his time it was a very easie matter to run up their lineal descent as far as the flood, nay, up to Adam; for Adam conversed sometime with Lamech Noah's Father; for Lamech was born A. M. 874. Adam died 920. fo that 56 years, according to that computation, were Adam and Lamech co-temporary. Can we then think Noah ignorant of the ancient tradition of the world when his Father was folong co-avous with Adam; and Mathufelah his Grandfather, who was born A. M. 687. died not till A. M. 1656. according to our most learned Primate of Armagh, i. e. was 600 years co-temporary with Noah. Sem his Son was probably living in some part of Jacob's time, or Isaac's at least; and how easily and uninterruptedly might the general tradition of the ancient History be continued thence to the time of Moses, when the number of families agreeing in this tradition was increased, and withall incorporated by a common ligament of Religion? I demand then, where can we suppose any ignorance or cutting off this general tradition in so continued a succession as here was? Can we imagine that the Grand-children of Facob could be ignorant of their own pedigree, and whence they came into Ægypt? can we think a thing so late and so remarkable as the account of their coming thither, should be forgotten, which was attended with fo many memorable circumstances, especially the felling and advancement of Joseph, whose memory it was impossible should be obliterated in so short a time? Could 7acob be ignorant of the Country whence his Grand-father Abraham came? especially when he lived so long in it himself, and married into that branch of the family that was remaining there, when he had ferved his Uncle Laban? Could Abraham, when he was co-temporary with Sem, be ignorant of the truth of the flood, when Sem, from whom he derived himself, was one of the persons who escaped it in the Ark? Could Sem beignorant of the actions before the flood, when Adam, the first man, lived fo near the time of Noah? and, Could Noah then be igno-

rant of the Creation and the Fall of man? Thus we fee it almost impossible, that any age among them then could be ignorant of the passages of the precedent, which they were so few Generations removed from, that they could with ease derive themselves from the first man. What then can we say? that any of these had a design of deceiving their posterity, and so corrupted the tradition? but besides, that it could be hardly posible at that time, when there were fo many remaining testimonies of former times; what end can we imagine that any Parents should have in thus deceiving their Children or what advantage should come to them by such a deceit? Nav. I shall now manifest in the second place, that the whole interest of their children lay in preserving this tradition certain and entire. For their hopes of possessing Canaan and title to it, depended upon the promise made to Abraham 400 years before; which would not only keep awake their sense of Divine Providence, but would make them careful during their bondage to preserve their Genealogies, because all the right they could plead to their possessions in Canaan, was from their being of Abraham's feed. And besides this, on purpose to be a memorial to them of passages between God and Abraham, they had in their flesh a badge of circumcision, which would serve to call to mind those transactions which had been between God and their fore-fathers. These things then do fully demonstrate, that infifting onely on rational evidence, the Israelites were the most certain conservators of the ancient History of the world; and can we then think, that Moses who was the Ruler among them, should not fully understand those things which every Israelite could scarce be ignorant of, and might correct the mistakes of Moses in his History, if he had been guilty of any fuch? These things I suppose have made the first proposition evident. That it was morally impossible Moses should be deceived himself, or be ignorant of the things which he reports to others both because he had abilities sufficient to discover truth from fallhood, and sufficient information of the passages of former times.

CHAP. III.

Moses his fidelity and integrity proved.

Moses considered as an Historian, and as a Law-giver; his sidelity in both proved; clear evidences that he had no intent to deceive in his History, freedom from private interest, impartiality in his relations, plainness and perspicuity of stile. As a Law-giver, he came armed with Divine Authority, which being the main thing, is fixed on to be fully proved from his actions and writings. The power of miracles the great evidence of Divine revelation. Two grand questions propounded. In what cases miracles may be expected, and how known to be true. No necessity of a constant power of miracles in a ·Church: Two cases alone wherein they may be expected. When any thing comes as a Law from God, and when a Divine Law is to be repealed. The necessity of miracles in those cases as an evidence of Divine revelation afferted. Objections answered. No use of miracles when the dostrine is settled and owned by aniracles in the first revelation. No need of miracles in reformation of a Church.

Sect. 1. THE second proposition contains the proof of Moses his fidelity, that he was as far from having any intent to deceive others, as he was being deceived himself. Two ways Moses must be considered, as an Historian, and as a Lawgiver; the only inducement for him to deceive as an Historian, must be fome particular interest which must draw him aside from an impartial delivery of the truth; as a *Eaw-giver* he might deceive, if he pretended Divine revelation for those Laws which were only the iffues of his own brain, that they might be received with a greater veneration among the people, as Numa Pompilius and others did. Now if we prove that Moles had no interest to deceive in his History, and had all rational evidence of Divine revelation in his Laws, we shall abundantly evince the undoubted fidelity of Moses in every thing recorded by him. We begin then with his fidelity as an Historian; and it being contrary to the common interest of the world to deceive and be deceived, we have no reason to entertain any suspicions of the veracity of any person where we cannot discern some peculiar interest that might have a stronger biass upon him than the common interest of the world. For it is otherwife in morals than in naturals; for in naturals, we fee that every thing will leave its proper interest to preserve the common interest of nature; but in morals, there is nothing more common than deserting the common interest of mankind, to set up a peculiar interest against it: It being the truest description of a Politician, that he is one who makes himself the centre, and the whole world his circumference; that he regards not how much the whole world is abused, if any advantage doth accrue to himself by it. Where we see it then the defign of any person to advance himself or his posterity, or to set up the credit of the Nation whose History he writes, we may have just cause to suspect his partiality, because we then find a sufficient inducement for such a one to leave the common road of truth, and to fall into the paths of deceit. But we have not the least ground to suspect any such partiality in the History of Moses; for nothing is more clear than that he was free from the ambitious design of advancing himself and his posterity, who notwithstanding the great honour he enjoyed himself, was content to leave his posterity in the meanest fort of attendance upon the Tabernacle. And as little have we ground to think he intended to flatter that Nation, which he fo lively describes, that one would think he had rather a design to set forth the frowardness, unbelief, unthankfulness, and disobedience of a Nation towards a Gracious God, than any ways to inhance their reputation in the world, or to ingratiate himself with them by writing this History of them Nay, and he sets forth so exactly the lesser failings and grosser enormities of all the Ancestours of this Nation whose acts he records, that any impartial Reader will foon acquit him of a defign of flattery, when after he hath recorded those faults, he seeks not to extenuate them, or bring any excuse or pretence to palliate them. So that any observing reader may easily take notice, that he was carried on by a higher defign than the common people of Historians are; and that his drift and scope was to exalt the goodness and favour of God, towards a rebellious and obstinate people. Of which there can be no greater nor more lively demonstration, than the History of all the transactions of the

as long as the whole web of his History is like to do. Had it been the least part of his design to have his memory preferved with a superstitious veneration among the Jews, how easie had it been for him to have left out any thing that might in the least entrench upon his reputation? but we find him very fecure and careless in that particular; nay, on the other fide, very studious and industrious in depressing the honour and deferts of men and advancing the power and goodness of God. And all this he doth, not in an affected strain of Rhethorick, whose proper work is impetrare fidem mendacio, and as Tully somewhere confesseth, to make things seem otherwise than they are, but with that innate simplicity and plainness, and yet withal with that Imperatoria brevitas, that Majesty and Authority, that it is thereby evident he fought not to court acceptance, but to demand belief: Nor had any fuch pitiful defign of pleafing his Readers with some affected phrases, but thought that Truth it felf had presence enough with it, to com-

the Fewish Nation, from their coming forth of Ægypt to their utter ruine and desolation. And Moses tells them as Deut. 7. 7, 8. from God himself, it was neither for their number, nor their goodness, that God fet his Love upon them, but he loved them, because he loved them; i. e. no other account was to be given of his gracious dealing with them, but the freeness of his own bounty, and the exuberancy of his goodness towards them. Nay, have we not cause to admire the ingenuity as well as veracity of this excellent personage, who not only lays so notorious a blot upon the stock of his own Family Levi, recording fo punctually the inhumanity and cruelty of him, and Simeon in their dealings with the Sechemites; but likewise in-Gen. 34. 25. Gen. 49.5,6,7. ferts that curse which was left upon their memory for it, by their own Father at his decease! And that he might not leave the least suspicion of partiality behind him, he hath not done as the statuary did, (who engraved his own name so artificially in the statue of Jupiter, that one should continue as long as the other, (but what the other intended for the praise of his skill, Moses hath done for his ingenuity, that he hath so interwoven the History of his own failings and disobedience with those of the Nation, that his spots are like to continue

mand the submission of our understandings to it.

Especially

Especially when all these were delivered by such a one who came fufficiently armed with all motives of credibility and inducements to affent, by that evidence which he gave, that he was no pretender to divine revelation, but was really imployed as a peculiar instrument of State under the God and Ruler of the whole world. Which if it be made clear, than all our further doubts must presently cease, and all impertinent disputes be filenced, when the fupream Majesty appears impowering any person to distate to the world the Laws they must be governed by. For if any thing be repugnant to our rational faculties, that is, that God should distate any thing but what is most certainly true, or that the Governour of the world should prescribe any Laws, but such as were most just and reasonable. If we suppose a God, we cannot question veracity to be one of his chiefest Attributes, and that it is impossible the God of truth should imploy any, to reveal any thing as from him, but what was undoubtedly true. So that it were an argument of the most gross and unreasonable incredulity, to distrust the certainty of any thing which comes to us with sufficient evidence of divine revelation, because thereby we shew our distrust of the veracity of God himself. All that we can desire then, is only reasonable satisfaction concerning the evidence of Divine revelation in the person whose words we are to credit, and this our Gracious God hath been so far from denying men, that he hath given all rational evidence of the truth of it. For it implying no incongruity at all, to any notions of God or our selves, that God should, when it pleases him, single out some instrument to manifest his will to the world; our enquiry then leads us to those things which may be proper notes and characters of such a person who is employed on so high an Embassy. And those are chiefly these two, if his actions be such as could not flow from the power of meer natural causes; and if the things he reveals be fuch as could not proceed from any created understanding. First then, for his actions, these striking most upon our outward senses, when they are any thing extraordinary, do transmit along with the impressions of them to the understanding, an high opinion of the person that does them: Whereas the mere height of knowledge, or profoundness of things discovered, can have no fuch present power and influence upon any, but such are of more raised and inquisitive minds. And the world is

is generally more apt to fuspect its felf deceived with words. than it can be with actions; and hence Miracles, or the doing of things above the reach of nature, hath been always embraced as the greatest testimony of Divine authority and revelation. For which there is this evident reason, That the course of nature being fetled by divine power, and every thing acting there by the force of that power it received at first, it feems impossible that any thing should really alter the feries of things, without the fame power which at first produced them. This then we take for granted, that where-ever such a power appears, there is a certain evidence of a Divine presence going along with such a person who enjoys it. And this is that which is most evident in the actions of Moses, both as to the Miracles he wrought both in Agypt and the Wilderness, and his miraculous deliverance of the Israelites out of Ægypt, this latter being as much above the reach of any merely civil power, as the other above natural.

Sect. 3.

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We therefore come to the rational evidence of that divine authority whereby Moses acted, which may be gathered from that divine power which appeared in his actions; which being a matter of fo great weight and importance (it being one of the main bases whereon the evidence of divine revelation, as to us, doth stand) and withal of so great difficulty and obscurity, (caused through the preferring some parties in Religion, above the common interest of it) it will require more care and diligence to fearch what influence the power of Miracles hath upon the proving the Divine Commission of those who do them. Whether they are fuch undoubted credentials, that where-ever they are produced, we are prefently to receive the persons who bring them, as extraordinary Embassadors from heaven, employed on some peculiar message to the sons of men? For the full stating of this important question, two things must be cleared; First, In what cases miracles may be expected as credentials to confirm an immediate commission from Heaven? Secondly. What rational evidences do attend those miracles, to asfure us they are such as they pretend to be?

First, For the cases wherein these miracles are to be expected as inducements to, or consirmations of our faith, concerning the Divine imployment of any persons in the world. And here I lay down this as a certain Foundation, That a power of miracles is not constantly

constantly and perpetually necessary in all those who manage the affairs of Heaven here on earth, or that act in the name of God in the world. When the doctrine of faith is once setled in sacred records, and the divine revelation of that doctrine fufficiently attested, by a power of miracles in the revealers of it, What imaginable necessity or pretext can there be contrived for a power of miracles, especially among such as already own the Divine revelation of the Scriptures? To make then a power of working miracles to be constantly refident in the Church of God, as one of the necessary notes and characters of it, is to put God upon that necessity which common nature is freed from, viz. of multiplying things without fufficient cause to be given for them; and to leave mens faith at a stand, when God hath given sufficient testimony for it to rely upon. It is a thing too common and easie to be observed, that some perfons out of their eagerness to uphold the interest of their own party, have been fain to establish it upon such grounds. which when they are fufficiently fearched to the bottom, do apparently undermine the common and fure Foundations whereon the belief of our common Christianity doth mainly stand. It were easie to make a large discourse on this subject, whereby we may rip open the wounds that Christianity hath received through the contentions of the feveral parties of it; but this imputation cannot with fo much reason be fastned on any party, as that which is nailed to a pretended infallible chair; for which we need no other instance, than this before us. For while the leaders of that party make a power of miracles to be a necessary note of the true Church, they unavoidably run men upon this dangerous precipice, not to believe any thing as a matter of faith, where they find not sufficient miracles to convince them that is the true Church which propounds it to them. Which necessarily follows from their acknowledged principles; for it being impossible, according to them, to believe any thing with a divine faith, but what is propounded by the Church as an infallible guide; and it being impossible to know which is this infallible guide, but by the notes and characters of it, and one of those notes, being a power of miracles, I cannot find out my guide but by this power; and this power must be present in the Church, (for nothing of former ages' concerning faith, as the Miracles of Christ, his

Book II.

his resurrection, &c. is to be believed, but on the Church's account) and therefore where men do not find fufficient conviction from present miracles, to believe the Church to be an infallible guide, they must throw off all faith concerning the Gospel; for as good never a whit, as never the better. And therefore it is no wonder Atheism should be so thriving a plant in Italy; nay under, if not within the walls of Rome it felf. where inquisitive persons do daily see the jugglings and impostures of Priests in their pretended miracles, and from thence are brought to look upon Religion its felf as a mere imposture. and to think no Pope so infallible as he that said, Quantum nobis profuit hæc de Christo fabula? Such horrid consequences do men drive others, if not bring themselves, to, when they employ their parts and industry rather to uphold a corrupt interest, than to promote the belief of the acknowledged principles of Christian faith. But as long as we affert no necesfity of fuch a power of miracles to be the note of any true Church, nor any fuch necessity of an infallible guide, but that the miracles wrought by Christ and his Apostles, were sufficient evidences of a divine spirit in them; and that the Scriptures were recorded by them to be an infallible rule of faith. here we have more clear reason as to the primary motives and grounds of faith, and withal the infallible veracity of God in the Scriptures, as the last resolution of faith. And while we affert fuch an infallible rule of faith, delivered to us by fuch an unanimous confent from the first delivery of it, and then so fully attested by such uncontrollable miracles, we cannot in the least understand to what end a power of miracles should now ferve in the Church, especially among those who all believe the Scriptures to be the word of God. Indeed before the great harvest of Converts in the primitive times were brought in. both of Jews and Gentiles, and the Church fully setled in receiving the Canon of the Scriptures univerfally, we find God did continue this power among them; but after the Books of the New Testament were generally embraced as the rule of faith among Christians, we find them so far from pretending to any fuch power, that they reject the pretenders to it, fuch as the Donatifts were, and plead upon the same accounts as we do. now against the necessity of it. We see then no reason in the world for miracles to be continued where the doctrine of faith

is fettled, as being confirmed by miracles in the first Preachers of it.

Se & 4.

There are only these two cases then, wherein miracles may justly and with reason be expected. First, When any person comes as by an extraordinary commission from God to the world, either to deliver some peculiar message, or to doe some more than ordinary service. Secondly, When something that hath been before established by Divine Law, is to be repealed, and some other way of worship established instead of it. First, When any comes upon an extraordinary message to the world, in the name of, and by commission from God, then it is but reason to require some more than ordinary evidence of such authority. Because of the mainimportance of the duty of giving credit to fuch a person, and the great fin of being guilty of rejecting that divine authority which appears in him. And in this case we cannot think that God would require it as a duty to believe, where he doth not give sufficient arguments for faith, nor that he will punish perfons for fuch a fault, which an invincible ignorance was the cause of. Indeed God doth not use to necessitate faith, as to the act of it, but he doth so clearly propound the object of it, with all arguments inducing to it, as may fufficiently justifie a Believer's choice in point of reason and prudence, and may leave all Unbelievers without excuse. I cannot see what account a man can give to himself of his faith, much less what Apology he can make to others for it, unless he be sufficiently convinced in point of the highest reason, that it was his duty to believe; and in order to that conviction, there must be some clear evidence given, That what is spoken hath the impress of Divine authority upon it. Now what convictions there can be to any fober mind concerning Divine authority in any person without fuch a power of miracles going along with him, when he is to deliver some new doctrine to the world to be believed, I confess I cannot understand. For although I doubt not but whereever God doth reveal any thing to any person immediately, he gives demonstrable evidence to the inward senses of the soul, that it comes from himself; yet this inward sense can be no ground to another person to believe his doctrine divine, because no man can be a competent judge of the actings of another's senses; and it is impossible to another person to distinguish the actings. of the divine Spirit from strong impressions of fancy by the force and Object.

3.

and energy of them. If it be faid, That we are bound to believe those, who say they are fully satisfied of their Divine Commission. I answer First, this will expose us to all delusions imaginable: Ansiv. I. for if we are bound to believe them because they say so, we are bound to believe all which fay fo; and none are more confident pretenders to this than the greatest deceivers, as the ex-

perience of our age will sufficiently witness. Secondly, Men 2. must necessarily be bound to believe contradictions; for nothing is more ordinary, than for fuch confident pretenders to a Divine Spirit, to contradict one another, and it may be, the same person in a little time contradict himself: and must we still be bound to believe all they fay? If fo, no Philosophers would be fo much in request, as those Aristotle disputes against in his

Metaphyficks, who thought a thing might be, and not be. at the same time. Thirdly, The ground of faith at last will be but a mere humane testimony, as far as the person who is to believe is capable of judging of it. For the Question being, Whether the person I am to believe hath divine authority for what he faith, What ground can I have to believe that he hath fo? Must I take his bare affirmation for it? If so, then a mere humane testimony must be the ground of divine faith, and that which it is last resolved into; if it be said, That I am to believe the divine authority by which he speaks, when he speaks in the name of God: I answer, the question will again return, how I shall know he speaks this from divine authority? and so there must be a progress in infinitum, or founding divine faith on a mere humane testimony, if I am to believe divine revelation merely on the account of the person's affirmation who pretends unto it. For in this case it holds good, non apparentis & non existentis eadem est ratio; if he be divinely inspired, and there be no ground inducing me to believe that he is fo, I shall be excused, if I believe him not, if my wilfulness and laziness be not the cause of my unbelief.

Set. 5.

If it be faid, That God will satisfie the minds of good men concerning the truth of divine revelation. I grant it to be wonderfully true; but all the question is de modo, how God will satisfie them? whether merely by inspiration of his own spirit in them, affuring them that it is God that speaks in such persons; or by giving them rational evidence, convincing them of fufficient grounds to believe it. If we allert the former way, we

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run into these inconveniences: First, We make as immediate a revelation in all those who believe, as in those who are to reveal divine truths to us; for there is a new revelation of an object immediately to the mind; viz. that such a person is inspired of God; and fo is not after the common way of the Spirit's illumination in Believers, which is by inlightning the faculty, without the proposition of any new object, as it is in the work of Grace: So that according to this opinion, there must be immediate inspiration as to that act of faith, whereby we believe any one to have been divinely inspired, and consequently to that whereby we believe the Scriptures to be the Word of God. Secondly, Doth not this make the fairest plea for men's unbelief? For, I demand, Is it the duty of those who want that immediate illumination to believe or no? If it be not their duty, unbelief can be no in to them; if it be a duty, it must be made known to be a duty; and how can that be made known to them to be a duty, when they want the only and necesfary means of instruction in order to it? Will God condemn them for that, which it was impossible they should have, unless God gave it them? And how can they be left inexcusable, who want fo much as rational inducements to faith; for of these I now speak, and not of efficacious persuasions of the mind, when there are rational arguments for faith propounded. But, lastly, I suppose the case will be cleared, when we take notice what course God hath always taken to give all rational satisfaction to the minds of men, concerning the persons whom he hath imployed in either of the forementioned cases. First, For those who have been imployed upon some special message and service for God, he hath fent them forth sufficiently provided with manifestations of the Divine power whereby they acted; as is most clear and evident in the present case of Moses, Exodus 4. 1, 2, 3,4,5. where Moles puts the case to God, which we are now debating of. Supposing, faith he, that I should go to the Israelites and tell them, God had appeared to me, and fent me to deliver them, and they should fay, God had not appeared unto me; how should I satisfie them? God doth not reject this objection of Moses as savouring of unbelief, but presently shews him how he should satisfie them, by causing a miracle before his face, turning his Rod into a Serpent; and God gives this as the reason of it, vers. 5. That they may believe that the Lord-

done

Lord God of their Fathers, the God of Abraham, the God of Isaac, the God of Jacob, hath appeared unto thee. It seems God himself thought this would be the most pregnant evidence of God's appearing to him, if he wrought miracles before their faces. Nay, lest they should think one single miracle was not sufficient, God in the immediate following verses adjoyns two more, which he should doe in order to their satisfaction; and further, vers. 21. God gave him a charge to doe all those wonders before Pharaoh, which he had put into his hand: And accordingly we find Pharaoh presently demanding a miracle of Moses, Exodus, 7.9. which accordingly Moses did in his presence, though he might suppose Pharaoh's demand not to proceed from desire of satisfaction, but from some hopes that for want of it, he might have rendred his credit suspected among the Israelites.

Indeed after God had delivered his people, and had fetled

them in a way of ferving him according to the Laws delive-

Sect. 6.

red by Moses, which he had confirmed by unquestionable miracles among them, we find a caution laid in by Moses himself, against those which should pretend signs and wonders to draw them off from the Religion established by the Law of Moses. Deut. 13. 1,2, And so likewise under the Gostel, after that was established 3. by the unparallell'd miracles of our Saviour and the Apostles, we find frequent cautions against being deceived by those who came with pretences of doing great miracles. But this is fo far from infringing the credibility of fuch a Testimony which is confirmed by miracles, that it yields a strong confirmation to the truth of what I now affert. For the doctrine is supposed to be already established by miracles, according to which we are to judge of the spirits of such pretenders. Now it stands to the greatest reason, that when a Religion is once established by uncontrolled miracles, we should not hearken to every whiffling Conjurer that will pretend to doe great feats, to draw us off from the truth established. In which case, the furest way to discover the imposture is, to compare his pretended miracles with those true and real ones which were done by Moses and Christ; and the ground of it is, because every person is no competent judge of the truth of a miracle; for the Devil, by

his power and fubtilty, may eafily deceive all fuch as will be led by the nofe by him, in expectation of fome wonders to be

done by him. And therefore as long as we have no ground to question the certainty of those miracles which were wrought by Christ or Moses, I am bound to adhere to the dostrine established by those miracles, and to make them my rule of judging all persons who shall pretend to work miracles: Because, I. I do not know how far God may give men over to be deceived by lying wonders, who will not receive the truth in the love of it; i.e. those that think not the Christian Religion sufficiently confirmed by the miracles wrought at the first promulgation of it. God in justice may permit the Devil to go further than otherwise he could, and leave such persons to their own credulity, to believe every imposture and illusion of their fenfes for true miracles. 2. That dostrine which was confirmed by undoubted miracles, hath affured us of the coming of lying wonders, whereby many should be deceived. Now this part of the doctrine of the Goffel is as certainly true as any of the rest; for it was confirmed by the same miracles that the other was; and besides that, the very coming of such miracles is an evidence of the truth of it, it falling out fo exactly according to what was foretold fo many hundred years fince. Now if this doctrine be true, then am I certain the intent of these miracles is to deceive, and that those are deceived who hearken to them; and what reason then have I to believe them? 2. To what end do these miracles serve? Are they to confirm the truths contained in Scripture? But what need they any confirmation now, when we are affured by the miracles wrought by Christ and his Apostles, that the doctrine by them preached came from God? and so hath been received upon the credit of those miracles ever fince. Were these truths sufficiently proved to be from God before or no? If not, then all former ages have believed without sufficient ground for faith; if they were, then what ground can there be to confirm us in them now? Certainly God, who never doth any thing but for very great purposes, will never alter the course of nature, merely for satisfaction of men's vain curiosities.

But it may be it will be said, It was something not fully revealed in Scripture which is thus confirmed by miracles: but where hath the Scripture told us, that any thing not fully revealed therein, should be afterwards confirmed? Was the Scripture an infallible rule of faith while this was wanting in it? Did Christ

Sect. 7.

3.

and his Apostles discharge their places, when they lest something unrevealed to us? Was this a duty before these miracles, or no? if it was, what need miracles to confirm it? if not, Christ hath not told us all necessary conditions of salvation. For whatever is required as a duty, is such, as the neglect of it. runs men upon damnation. Lastly, men's faith will be lest at continual uncertainties; for we know not according to this principle, when we have all that is necessary to be believed, or doe all that is necessary to be practised in order to salvation. For if God may still make new articles of faith, or constitute new duties by fresh miracles, I must go and enquire what miracles are wrought in every place, to see that I miss nothing that may be necessary for me, in order to my happiness in another world.

If men pretend to deliver any doctrine contrary to the Scripture; then it is not only necessary that they confirm it by miracles, but they must manifest the falsity of those miracles on which that doctrine is believed, or else they must use another miracle to prove that God will set his seal to confirm both parts of a contradiction to be true. Which being the hardest task of all, had need be proved by very sufficient and undoubted miracles, such as may be able to make us believe those are miracles, and are not, at the same time, and so the strength of the argument is utterly destroyed by the medium produced to prove it by.

By this discourse these two things are clear; First, That no pretences of miracles are to be hearkned to, when the dostrine we are to believe is already established by them, if those miracles tend in the least to the derogation of the truth of what was established by those former miracles. Secondly, That when the full dostrine we are to believe is established by miracles, there is no necessity at all of new miracles, for confirmation of any of the truths therein delivered. And therefore it is a most unreasonable thing to demand miracles of those to prove the truth of the doctrine they deliver, who do first solemnly profess to deliver nothing but what was confirmed by miracles in the first delivery of it, and is contained in the Scriptures of the Old and New Testament, and secondly do not pretend to any immediate Commission from heaven, but do nothing but what in their consciences they think every true Christian is bound to doe; much more all Magistrates and Ministers who believe the truth of what they profess.

profess, which is in their places to reform all errours and abuses which are crept into the dostrine or practice of Christianity, through the corruption of men or times. And therefore it is a most unjust and unreasonable demand of the Papists. when they require miracles from our first reformers, to prove the truth of their doctrine with. Had they pretended to have come with an immediate commission from heaven to have added to the Doctrine of the Gospel, there had been some plea for fuch a demand; but it was quite otherwise with them: Their only design was, to whip the buyers and sellers out of the Temple, to purge the Church from its abuses: And although that by Ferome was thought to be one of our Saviour's greatest miracles, yet this by us is conceived to be no other than the duty of all Magistrates, Ministers, and private Christians; these by their prayers, Ministers by their doctrine, and Magistrates by their just authority.

CHAP. IV.

The fidelity of the Prophets fucceeding Moses.

An order of Prophets to succeed Moses, by God's own appointment in the Law of Moses. The Schools of the Prophets, the original and institution of them. The Cities of the Levites. The occasion of their first institution. The places of the Schools of the Prophets, and the tendency of the institution there to a prophetical office. Of the Musick used in the Schools of the Prophets. The Roman Assamenta, and the Greek Hymns in their solemn worship. The two sorts of Erophets among the Jews, Leiger and extraordinary. Ordinary Prophets taken out of the Schools, proved by Amos and Saul.

BUT although now under the Gospel (the revelation of Sect. 1. God's Will being compleated by Christ and his Apostles) we have no reason either to expect new Revelations, or new Miracles for confirming the old; yet under the Law, God training up his people by degrees till the coming of Christ, there was a necessity of a new supply of Divine Messengers (called T 2 Prophets)

Prophets) to prepare the people, and make way for the coming of Christ. As to whom these two things are considerable

First, Those Prophets whose work was to inform the people of their duties, or to reprove them for their sins, or toprepare them for the coming of the Messias (which were their chief tasks) had no need to consirm the truth of their dostrine or commission from heaven by the working of miracles among them. And that on these two accounts.

First, Because God did not consummate the revelation of his mind and will to the Tews by the Ministry of Moses, but appointed a succession of Prophets to be among them, to make known his mind unto them. Now, in this case, when the prophetical office was established among them, what necessity was there that every one that came to them upon an errand from God, should prove his testimony to be true by miracles, when in the difcharge of his office he delivered nothing dissonant from the Law of Moses? It is one argument God intended a succession of Prophets, when he laid down fuch rules in his Law for the judging of them, and to know whether they were truly inspired or no, Deut. 18. 21, 22. And in that same place God doth promise a succession of Prophets, Deut. 18. 15, 18. A Prophet will the Lord God raise up unto thee like unto me; to him (hall ye hearken. Which words, though in their full and compleat sence they do relate to Christ (who is the great Prophet of the Church) yet who ever attends to the full scope of the words, will eafily perceive that the immediate fence of them doth relate to an order of Prophets, which should succeed. Moses among the Fews; between whom and Moses there would be a great similitude as to their Birth, Calling, and Dostrine, though not a just equality, which is excluded, Deut. 34. 10, 11. and the chief reason why it is said there that the other Prophets fell so much short of Moses is, in regard of the signs and monders which he wrought, as is there largely expressed. Nor may it feem strange, that by a Prophet should be underflood an order or succession of Prophets, when it is acknowledged by most Protestants, that by & Avilyeus @, the Antichrist, is understood a rank and succession of several persons in the same name and function: And that it is to be understood in those words concerning a succession of Prophets, will appear by the occaffon of their being brought in; for ver. 14. God prohibits them

to hearken after the manner of their Neighbour-nations, to observers of times and diviners, and then brings in the following words, v. 15. as to the reason of that prohibition, that God would raise up a Prophet among themselves like unto Mo- V. Arabic vers. fes, and to him should they hearken. Now let any rational & Calv. in loc. man judge whether it were so probable an argument to keep P. Fagium, P. them from hearkning to Diviners of other Nations, that there Com. Class. 1. should a Prophet arise 2000 years after like unto Moses, as that cap. 3. Sett. 12. he would raise up a continued succession of Prophets among themselves, to whom they should hearken. Thus Origen in his excellent Books against Celsus, shews the necessity of the Prophetical office among the Jews from hence; for, faith he, it being written in their Law that the Gentiles hearkened unto Oracles and Divinations; but God would not suffer it to be so among them, it presently follows, A Prophet will the Lord God raise up in the midst of thee, &c. Therefore, saith he, when the Nations round about them had their Oracles, and several ways of divination, all which were strictly prohibited among the Jews, if the Jews had no way of foreknowing things to come, it had been almost impossible, considering the great curiosity of humane nature, to have kept them from despising the Law of Moses, or apostatizing to the heathen Oracles, or setting up something like them among themselves. Which interpretation of his seems to have a great deal of reason, not only from the coherence of the words here, but from the Analogy of many other precepts of the Law of Moses, which it is most certain have a respect to the customs of the Idelatrons Nations round about them. Another reason why it is most probable, that by this is underflood a succession of Prophets, is the charge which follows against false Prophets, and the rules to discover them, ver. 20, 21, 22. which had not been fo pertinent and coherent if the opposition did not lie between the order of true Prophets among the Fews, and the false Prophets, which should rife up in the midst of them. And that which yet further justifies this interpretarion, is, that there is no other place in the whole Pentateuch which doth expresly speak of a succession of Prophets, if this be not understood of it; and is it any ways probable a matter of fo great moment and confequence should be wholly pretermitted? Especially when we find it so exactly performed in the succeeding Ages of the Terrish Commonwealth; their immediate

Deut. 18. 14.

mediate Rulers like Dictators at Rome, after Moses's death, being most raised up by immediate incitation and impulse from God, and many of them inspired with a spirit of Prophecy. How should the Jews have expected these, or obeyed them when they appeared, had not God foretold it to them, and provided them for it by the Law of Moses?

Sect. 2.

Neither did these *Prophets* arise singly among them, like blazing Stars, one in an Age, to portend future events, but whole Constellations of them sometimes appeared together; yea, fo many finaller Prophets were fometimes united together, as made up a perfect Galaxy, when they were entred into Societies, and became Schools of the Prophets; for fuch we frequently read of in Scripture. The original and institution of which may cast a further light into our present defign, and shew us the little reason the Fews could have to expect miracles from them to confirm their doctrine, who were brought up in the knowledge of their Law, and were called out from their feveral Societies into the prophetical office by the immediate incitation of God himself. Which being fo commonly known among them, there needed no fuch extraordinary proofs to manifest the Divine authority by which they were employed. Two things then we shall endeavour to clear; First, the original and institution of these Schools of the Prophets; and Secondly, That it was the ordinary course for the Prophets by employment to be taken forth of these societies wherein they were educated. First, for the original and institution of these Schools of the Prophets. The first Seminaries, or places of institution among the Jews, were the Cities of the Levites, which were dispersed up and down in the several Tribes of Israel; God thereby turning that into a bleffing, which was pronounced as a curse upon Levi by his Father Jacob, viz. that he should be divided in Jacob, and scattered in Israel. But though the fulfilling of that Prophecy might be the primary ground of that scattering, yet it is evident that Godaimed at some further good in it, both in reference to the Levites and the Israelites. Lyra undertakes to assign four reasons of this distribution of the Cities of the Levites among the Tribes. (1) Because if they had lived but in one Tribe, the worship of God would have seemed to have been confined to that Tribe. (2.) Because they would have been a burden to that

Gen. 49. 7.

Josh. 21.

Tribe

Tribe they had their habitations in (3.) From the equity of being maintained by all who ferved for all. (4.) Because it was their office to teach the people, and therefore it was necessary they should live among them. These reasons are most of them opposed by Abulentis, but defended by others. The last is that which most Abul, in 70% infift on, it being the peculiar office of the Levites to teach 21.6.7, 6 8. the people; fo 2 Chron. 35. 4. And faid unto the Levites, qui V. Sherlog. erudiebant omnem Israelem, as Vatablus renders it, who taught antiq Hebr. 1.2.

all Israel; and Massus insists on that as the great reason of Massus in Josh. their differsion, to be ready to teach the Law among the Is- c. 14. raelites. But yet all those who are agreed that teaching the Law was the duty of the Levites, are not yet agreed of the manner of that teaching; for there being two parts of their Law, the one ceremonial and judicial, and the other moral and spiritual, the question is, whether of these two did belong to, or was performed by the Priests and Levites. There are many who understand all that Office of teaching which belonged to the Priests and Levites, to be merely concerning the ceremonial part of the Law, i. e. deciding all cases of controverse which should arise concerning their ceremonial worship, which in Levit. 10. 10. is called putting a difference between holy and unholy, and between clean and unclean. But it feems fomewhat strange that God should take so great care about the shell and outside of his worship, and none at all for the moral and spiritual part of it, especially when he had fet apart a whole Tribe merely for his own fervice, and freed them from all other employments, that they might have a greater liberty to attend upon the things relating to his fervice; especially when it is mentioned as the duty of the Priests and Levites to teach all the statutes which the Lord had spo- Lev. 10. 10. ken to them by the hand of Moses, and that they shall teach Deut. 33. 10. Jacob thy statutes, and I frael thy Law. Which notwithstanding what Abarbinel and others fay, must certainly comprehend as well the moral as the ceremonial part of Moses his Law. And the Priests lips are said to preserve knowledge: and God saith Mal. 2.7, they should seek the Law at his mouth; for he is the messenger of the Lord of Hosts. Do these things import no more than mere deciding the cases of the ceremonial Law? But whatever God's intention in the institution of the Levites was, we find not much in Scripture of what they did for the promoting the moral

moral and spiritual part of divine worship; but it is no news to hear that Societies instituted for good and pious ends, should degenerate from the first intention of the Founders of them; and thus it is probable it was with the Levites, who finding the most of their benefit and advantage to come in by the ceremonial cases, might grow more negligent of the moral part of divine service, which brought no secular emolument to them.

Sect. 3.

And thence we read not of these Schools of the Prophets, which were Societies in order to spiritual instruction, till about the time of Samuel; and many think him to have been the first Authour of them. For it is evident, that about his time the Priesthood was grown to a great degeneracy, and men thereby estranged from the worship of God, so that there Sam. 3. 1. seemed almost a necessity then of restoring some Societies, who might have a special eye to the spiritual part of God's worship and service. The occasion of the institution of them, seems to have been from the refort which the people had to the high places for facrificing, during the captivity or uncertain abode of the Ark of God, after the defolation of Shiloh: now the people reforting to these places to perform their Solemnities, I Sam. 9. 12, it was so ordered, that a company of Prophets should be there

13. refident to bless the sacrifices, and instruct the people. of these places with these Societies in them we find mentioned in the time of Samuel. The first mentioned, 1 Sam. 10. 5, 10. which cannot be the same with Ramah, although the Syriack and Arabick versions so render it. For Samuel had his own residence in Ramah whither Saul went to him, I Sam. 9. 18, 19. but in this Chapter we find Samuel sending Saul on a journey from him beyond Bethel and the plain of Tabor, and there tells him he should meet with the company of Prophets upon the hill of God, ver. 5. Some think it was called the Hill of God, because of its height, as the Cedars of God and the mountains of God for the highest; so Tirinus understands it, but Menochius far more probably, quia in ea erat catus & veluti shola prophetarum. The Chaldee Paraphrast renders it, ad coller in quo arca Domini. R. Solomon makes this hill to be Kirjab jearim, and therefore called the hill of God, because the Ark was there in the house of Abinadab in the hill. But Lyra thinks he hath proved, that before this time the Ark was re-

1 Sam. 7. 1.

moved

moved from Kirjath-jearim to Mizpah; but Abulensis more V. Jun. in l. probably conceives it was never removed thither, and withal thinks this hill of God to be no other than Gibeah of Benjamin, where Saul inhabited; and thence the wonder was the greater, to see him prophesie among those who had known his former life and education. The other place is Naioth in Ramah, 1 Sam. 19.18, where was a high place whither the people came to facrifice; 20. this Ramah feems to have been the place of Samuel's nativity, I Sam. I. I. called Ramathaim Sophim, which the Syriack version renders collis specularum (some who would be ready to improve every thing for their purpose, would think it was so called in allufion to the imployment of the young Students there. So Heinfius conceives שרה צפים to be understood, Numb. 23. 14. Exercit. Sacra. the place of watchmen, from which word faith he, without 1. 1. c. 2. doubt, the Greeks derived their orgoi, who were wont in fuch high places to observe the course and motions of the heavens; But to pass by such frivolous conjectures.) It seems a great deal more probable, that this Ramah which the Septuagint by a light mutation of the initial letters calls aqua Daiu, was the same with Arimathaa, the Town of Foseph mentioned in the Gospel. But the place where the school of the Prophets was. feems to have been, with greatest conveniency, for a place of education, at some distance from the Town. Vatablus conceives it was built in the fields of Ramah, and the word Naioth, faith Pet. Martyr, properly fignifies pastures, and some remote places, quæ fere sunt studiis aptissima. The Chaldee Paraphrast renders Naioth by בית אולבנא a Colledge or School of prophetical education: over this Colledge Samuel himself was President, as most understand that place, I Sam. 19. 20. And when they saw the company of Prophets prophesing, and Samuel standing as appointed over them; fonathan renders it, & Samuelem stantem docentem super eos. To which we may well apply the words of Philo, speaking of the Jewish manner of instruction, To we have μόν Φ ύφηγεμβίε κ) διδάσκον Φ, την ή επιδιδύντων είς καλοκαγαθίαν κ) Philo.de v. Mof. Βελπειθών τάτε έθη κ τ βίον. The President going before and teach- 1.3. ing the rest increasing in goodness, and improving in life and manners.

Neither can we think so good and useful an institution, should presently degenerate or be turned into another channel; and therefore some conceive that the most noted Prophets to the time of David were the Presidents of these Colledges; such

as besides Samuel were Helcana, Gad, Nathan, Heman, and Feduthun; and that they felected out the choicest and most hopeful of the young Levites, and here educated them, together with the Nazarites which came out of other tribes. And it feems very probable, that in all the most noted high places whither they went to facrifice, there were fuch Schools erected after the first institution of them. Thence we read of such multitudes of the Prophets together, in the time of Ahab, 1 Kings 18. 4. for when 7ezabel cut off the Prophets of the Lord; Obadiah took an hundred and hid them in caves; certainly their number was very great, when an hundred might be faved without missing. The chief places where they resided, seem to have been Bethel, 2 Kings 2. 2. and Jericho, which was a Large Colledge; for therein we read of fifty sons of the Prophets standing together out of their number, 2 Kings 2.5,7,15. and Gilgal, which had been a place of Religion from the first entrance into Canaan; there we find the sons of the Prophets sitting before Elisha, 2 Kings 4.38. It seems most probable that the purity of God's worship among the ten tribes after the defection in the time of Feroboam was preserved by the Prophets in their several Schools and places of habitation; which hath sufficient foundation in that place, 2 Kings 4. 22. where the Shunamite's husband asks her wherefore the would go to the man of God that day, seeing it was neither new-moon nor Sabbath. Whereby it is both evident, that the Prophets did undertake the office of inftructing the people on their folemn Fefivals, and that it was their custom to resort to them for that Thus we see what care God took for the instruction of Israel Concil. in his people in a time of so general an Apostasie as that of the ten tribes was, when the Church of God could not be known by that constant visibility and outward Glory which some speak so much of, but was then clouded in obscurity, and shrouded it self under the mantles of some Prophets which God continued among them, and that not by any lineal succession neither,

> though the Jews would fain make the gift of Prophecy to be a kind of Cabala too, and conveyed in a constant succession from one Prophet to another. Neither were these Schools of the

V. Manaff. Ben end. Exod. 9. 35.

> Prophets only in Ifrael, but in Judah likewise was God known, and his Name was great among these Schools there. In Ferusalem it felf there was a Colledge where Huldah the Prophetess lived.

lived, 2 Kings 22. 14. some render Mishna in secunda urbis parte; for Ferusalem was divided into the upper and nether part of the City. Abulensis and Lyra will have it referr to the three Walls of the City in which the three chief parts of it were comprized; in the first, the Temple and the King's Palace; in the second, the Nobles and the Prophets houses; and in the third, the common people. Fosephus seems to savour the division of the gos. de bell. Jud. City into three parts; but Pineda thinks the second part of the 1.6. c.6.Pineda City was most inhabited by Artificers, and that the Prophets, derebus Sol. and the wife men, and such as frequented the Temple, most 1. 3. c. 28. dwelt in the City of David within the first Wall; and therefore he conjectures that the Colledge was upon Mount Sion. (and fo properly called Sion Colledge) and he explains that house which wisdom is said to have built, and hewn out her seven pillars, Prov. 9.1. by this Colledge, which he supposeth was built by Solomon in Mount Sion, and thence ver. 3. The is faid to cry upon the highest places of the City. Thus much may serve concerning the original and institution of these Schools of the

Prophets.

I now come to the fecond thing promifed concerning the Schools of the Prophets, which is, that it was God's ordinary method to call those perfons out of these Schools, whom he did employ in the discharge of the Frophetical office. Two things will be necessary for the clearing of this: First, what tendency their education in those Schools had towards the fitting them for their prophetical Office. Secondly, what evidence the Scripture gives us that God called the Prophets out from these Colledges. The first of these is very requisite to be cleared, because the prophetical office depending upon immediate inspiration, it is hard to conceive what influence any antecedent and preparatory dispositions can have upon receiving the prophetical spirit. It is commonly known how much the generality of Jewish Writers do insist on the necessity of these qualifications antecedent to a spirit of Prophecy. I. An excellent natural temper. 2. Good accomplishments both of wit and fortunes. 2. Separation from the world. 4. Congruity of place V. G. Vor. in (which they make proper to Judæa) 5. Opportunity of time. Maim, fundam. 6. And divine inspiration. These are so largely discoursed of by leg. c.7. Sect. 1. many learned men from Jewish Writers, that it will be both Mr. Smith of tedious and impertinent to recite much of their opinions con- Prophecy. c. 8.

Sect. 5.

cerning

cerning them: who, fince they have lost the gift of Prophecy. feem to have lost too that wildom and natural understanding. which they make one of the most necessary qualifications of a Prophet. It is not easie to imagine what subserviency riches could have to a prophetical spirit, unless the Fews be of Simon Magus his opinion, that these gifts of the Holy Ghost may be purchased with money; and if so, they think themselves in as likely a way to bid fair for a prophetical (pirit, as any People in the world. Or is it that they think it impossible any without them should have that free, cheerfull and generous spirit, which they make so necessary to a prophetick (pirit, that it is an axiome of great authority with them, Spiritus sanctus non residet super hominem mæstum; and they think Elisha his sit of passion did excuss his prophetick spirit from him, which he was fain to retrieve again with a fit of Musick. There are only two forts of those antecedent dispositions which seem to bear any affinity with the prophetick (pirit: And those are such as tended to the improvement of their natural faculties, and fuch as tended to their advancement in piety, and consequently to the subduing all irregular motions in their souls: Not that either of these did concurr by way of efficiency to the production of a spirit of Prophecy (which is an opinion Maimonides feems very favourable to) but that God might make choice particularly of fuch persons, to remove all prejudices against them in those they were fent unto. For nothing could possibly dissatisfie them more concerning divine inspiration, than if the per son who pretended to it were of very weak and shallow intellectuals, or known to be of an irregular conversation. In order therefore to the fuller fatisfaction of men concerning these two qualifications, this Institution of them in the Schools of the Prophets was of great subserviency, because therein their only employment was to improve in knowledge, and especially in true piety. This latter being the most necessary dispofition, fince the Apostle hath told us that the Prophets were Holy men, who spake as they were moved by the Holy Ghost. And in order to this, the greatest part we can find of the exercises of those who were educated in these Schools of the Prophets, were instructions in the Law, and the solemn celebration of the praises of God: Which appears in Scripture to have been their chief employment as Prophets, and by which they

More Nevoc. 1. 2. c. 36.

2 Pet. 1. 21.

are said to Prophesie: So at Gibeah at the Oratory there, me 1 Sam. 10. 5. find a company of Prophets coming down from the high place with a Pfaltery, a Tabret and Pipe, and a Harp before them, and

Prophelying.

It may feem somewhat strange to consider what relation these Musical instruments had to the Prophesying here mentioned. Are Musical notes like some seeds Naturalists speak of. which will help to excite a prophetick spirit? Or do ther tend to elevate the firits of men, and so put them into a great ter capacity of Enthusiasm? Or is it because Musick is so excellent for allaying the tumults of inward paffions; and fo fitting the foul for the better entertainment of the Divine Spirit? Or was all this Prophelying here spoken of nothing else but vocal and instrumental Musick? So some indeed understand it. that it was only the praising God with spiritual songs and melody; wherein one as the Pracentor began a hymn, which the rest took from him and carried on. I confess it carries the fairest probability with it, that this Prophesying with Musical instruments was at their places and times of sacrifice, an adjunct, if not a part of the solemn service of God: which was managed chiefly by the Choir of the Sons of the Prophets which were resident there, and were trained up in all exercises of piety and devotion. But yet I cannot fee any reason to think that all this Prophelying was merely finging of Hymns, and playing upon their Musical instruments to them, as some imagine, because there seems to be implied some immediate impulses of a prophetick spirit, by what Samuel said to Saul, that when he. came among the Prophets, the Spirit of the Lord would come upon him, and he should prophese with them, and he should be I Samo 10. 6. come another man. What strange impulse and wonderfull transformation was this merely for Saul to join with the Prophets in their praises of God? And this needed not so much admiration as followed there upon this action of Saul's, that it should become a Proverb, Is Saul also among the Prophets? Cer- 1 Sam. 10. 12. tainly Saul was a very great hater of all firitual Musick before, if it became a Proverb merely for his being present at, or joyning with this company in singing their Hymns. Therefore others think that those who are said particularly to prophesie at these Musick meetings, were some persons as chief among the rest, who having their spirits elevated by the Musick, did compose

Sect. 6.

Hymns

their

Hymns upon the place by a Divine Energy inwardly moving their minds. So that there were properly divine raptures in some of them, which transported them beyond the ordinary power of fancy or imagination, in dictating such Hymns as might be suitable for the design of celebrating the honour of God.

Sect. 7.

Neither may it feem strange that such an Enthusiastick Spirit should seize on them only at such solemn times, since we read in the New Testament of a like exercise of such gifts in the Church of Corinth, 1 Cor. 14. 26. where we see in comine together every one had a Pfalm, a Doctrine, a Tongue, a Revelation, &c. Whereby it appears that they were inspired upon the place; etiam extemporales Hymni sæpe ab afflatu erant, as Grotius there observes; as we see it in frequent instances in Scripture, of Simeon and Anna, Moses and Miriam, Deborah and Isaiah; and in the Christian Church after that Land-flood of inspired gifts was much abated in the Church, they kept up a custom much like to these extemporal hymns, as appears evidently by Tertullian, post aguam manualem & lumina ut quisque de Scripturis sanctis vel de proprio ingenio potest, provocatur in medium Deo canere; After they had ended their Love-Feafts. they begun their Hymns, which were either taken from the Scriptures, or of their own composition. Which Pliny takes notice of as a great part of the Christians worship, that they did fecum invicem carmen Christo quasi Deo dicere, they joyned in singing hymns to Christ as God. Nay, we find fornething very parallel to this preserved among the ruins of the Heathen worship; such were the Assamenta among the old Romans, which were peculiarly fung to the honour of some particular God: thence the Assamenta Janualia, Junonia, Minervia, which were privata poemata & carmina in singulos eos Deos conscripta, as the learned Foseph Scaliger observes. So likewise the Greeks had their folemn hymns to their Gods, some to the propitious Gods, which they called nanl's guves, and the Latins properly Indigitamenta, and Carmen calatorium; others they had to their Vejoves, or Lava numina, which they called Juves anoregnaiss the Latins, Carmen Averruncale; but besides these, they had some peculiar to the several Deities, as 6 8 mg. to Diana, Taxav to Apollo, 'Isao to Ceres, Dithyrambus to Bacchus, Adonidia to Adonis, as Proclustells us in his Chrestomathia. And it is withall evident, that the Heathens thought some of

Apol. c. 39.

Ep. 1. 10. Ep. 97.

Conject. in

their Priests inspired while they were performing these solemn Apud Phot. Bib. Devotions to the Gods (which probably was by Satan, as ma- Cod. 239. ny other things in Heathen worship taken up in imitation of these inspired bymns, and Musick used by the sons of the Prophets) but their hymns were so composed, as to be fit rather to transport men beyond the power of their reason, than to compose and sweeten it, which was suitable to the fanatick Enthufiasin, which was so common among them. So Proclus tells us that the Io-Bacche was βεβαπισιδί Φ πολλώ σευσγιαλι, full of noise and din; and the Dithyrambus was nexional of no no το ενθεσιώθες, με χρεείας εμφαίνων, a kind of extatick Moricedance, and their Priests were apprehended by them to be under a real Enthusiasm at these Solemnities. So the Corybantes are described rather like mad men than mere Enthusiasts by Strabo; they were endanasioi muss i Banynoi, as he describes them. dancing about with their cymbals and drums, and arms and pipes, (as though a Bedlam had been broke loofe among them) yet this was in high esteem among them; for, as Strabo after Geogr. 1. 10.

faith, ore indemarcies office voir mea dean Extr done, if to walling Aus Annieler, this Enthusiasm seemed to have a divine touch

with it, and to come very near to a prophetick firit.

But though the Prophefying with Musick among the fons of the Prophets, might be by some extemporary hymns immediately dictated by the Pracentor of the Chorus; yet we are not to imagine any fuch frantick actions among them as were among the Curetes and Corybantes, it being always the Devil's temper to over-doe, when he strives to imitate, and instead of folemn and fet devotions, to carry men beyond all fense and reafon. The Spirit of God did never distate any Io-Bacche's or Dithyrambs to transport and amuse the spirits of men; but those sweet airs which might both compose and elevate the spirits of all that heard them. For in probability the firits of all these Prophets were as Lutes tuned to the same height, that when the Spirit of God did frike upon one of them, the rest presently answered to it, and so made up an entire Consort among them. So Menochius thinks the Spirit of God not only moved the firit of him who was the Pracentor, but the rest likewise who joyned with him; and they are said to prophesie, saith Torniellus, forte quod non quascunque sed Propheti- Annal ad A.M. eas duntaxat cantiones præcinerent; but from hence we clearly 2945. Sect. 14

fee what the great employment was in these Schools of the Prophets, which, as the same Author expresseth, it was statis horis de rebus divinis disserve & divinis laudibus vacare; and thereby we understand what reference this institution had in order to the prophetical office, because the Spirit of God did much appear among them, and all their exercises tended to piety, and so did remove all prejudices from their persons, when God did send them abroad afterwards.

Self. 8.

And so it is evident he frequently did, not to say always, for that were to put too great a restraint upon the boundless spirit of God: For sometimes, as will appear afterwards, God fent the Prophets upon extraordinary messages, and then furnished them with sufficient evidence of their Divine commission, without being beholding to the Testimonials of the Schools of the Prophets. But besides these, God had a kind of Leiger-Prophets among his People; fuch were the most of those whom we read of in Scripture, which were no Pen-men of the sacred Scripture; fuch in David's time we may conceive Gad and Nathan, and afterwards we read of many other Prophets and Seers among them, to whom the people made their refort; Now these in probability were such as had been trained up in the Prophetick Schools, wherein the Spirit of God did appear, but in a more fixed and fettled way than in the extraordinary Prophets whom God did call out on some more signal occasions, fuch as Isaiah and Feremiah were. We have a clear foundation for such a distinction of Prophets in those words of Amos to Amaziah, Amos 7. 14, 15. I was no Prophet, neither was I a Prophets son; but I was a herdsman and a gatherer of Sycamore fruits: And the Lord took me as I followed the flock; and the Lord said unto me, Go prophese to my people Israel. Some understand the first words, I was not a Prophet, that he was not born a Prophet, as Feremiah was, not defigned and fet apart to it from his mother's womb; but I rather think by his not being a Prophet, he means, he was none of those resident Prophets in the Colledges or Schools of them, not any of those who had led a prophetick life, and withdrawn themselves from converse with the world; nor was I (faith he) the fon of a Prophet, i.e. not brought up in discipleship under those Prophets, and thereby trained up in order to the prophetick function. Non didici inter discipulo: Prophetarum, as Pellican renders it; nec institutione

stitutione qua filii Prophetarum quasi ad donum Prophetiæ à parentibus præparabantur, saith Estius. Non à puero educatus in Scholis Propheticis; fo Calvin and most other modern Interpreters understand it as well as Abarbinel and the Jewish Writers. Whereby it is evident that God's ordinary way for the Prophets, was to take fuch as had been trained up and educated in order to that end, although God did not tie up himfelf to this method, but sometimes called one from the Court, as he did Haiah; sometimes one from the herds, as here he did Amos, and bid them go prophesie to the house of Israel. There was then a kind of a fanding College of Prophets among the Israelites, who shined as fixed Stars in the Firmament; and there were others who had a more planetary motion, and withall a more lively and resplendent illumination from the fountain of prophetick light. And further it seems that the Birit of Prophecy did not ordinarily feize on any, but fuch whose institution was in order to that end, by the great admiration which was caused among the people at Saul's so sudden prophelying, that it became a Proverb, Is Saul also among the Pro- 1 Sam. 10. 12, phets? which had not given the least foundation for an adage for a strange and unwonted thing, unless the most common appearances of the firit of Prophecy had been among those who were trained up in order to it. Thus I suppose we have fully cleared the first reason why there was no necessity for the ordinary Prophets, whose chief office was instruction of the people, to prove their commission by miracles, because God had promised a Juccession of Prophets by Moses, and these were brought up ordinarily to that end among them; fo that all prejudices were sufficiently removed from their persons without any fuch extraordinary power as that of miracles.

19, 24.

CHAP. V.

. The tryal of Prophetical Doctrine.

Rules of trying Prophets established in the Law of Moses. The punishment of pretenders. The several sorts of false Prophets. The case of the Prophet at Bethel discussed. The tryal of false Prophets belonging to the great Sanhedrin. The particular rules whereby the doctrine of Prophets was judged. The proper notion of a Prophet, not foretelling future contingencies. but having immediate divine revelation. Several principles laid down for clearing the doctrine of the Prophets. 1. That immediate dictates of natural light are not to be the measure of divine revelation. Several grounds for divine revelation from natural light. 2. Whatever is directly repugnant to the distates of nature, cannot be of divine revelation. 3. No divine revelation doth contradict a divine positive Law without sufficient evidence of God's intention to repeal that Law. 4. Divine revelation in the Prophets was not to be measured by the words of the Law, but by the intention and reason of it. The prophetical Office a kind of Chancery to the Law of Moses.

Sect. I:

HE second reason why those Prophets whose main office I was instruction of the people, or merely foretelling future events, needed not to confirm their doctrine by miracles, is, because they had certain rules of tryal by their Law whereby to discern the false Prophets from the true. So that if they were deceived by them, it was their own of citancy and inadvertency which was the cause of it. God in that Law which was confirmed by miracles undoubtedly divine, had established a Court of tryal for prophetick Spirits, and given such certain rules of procedure in it, that no men needed to be deceived unless they awould themselves. And there was a greater necessity of such a certain way of tryal among them, because it could not otherwise be expected but in a Nation where a prophetick Spirit was so common, there would be very many pretenders to it, who might much endanger the faith of the people unless there were fome certain way to find them out. And the more effectually to deter men either from counterfeiting a prophetick Spirit,

or from hearkening to such as did, God appointed a severe punishment for every such pretender, viz. upon legal conviction, that he be punished with death. Deut. 18.20. But the Prophet which hall presume to speak a word in my name which I have not commanded him to speak, or that shall speak in the name of other Gods, shall surely die. The Fews generally understand this of strangling, as they do always in the Law. when the particular manner of death is not expressed. And therein a false prophet and a seducer were distinguished each from other, that a mere seducer was to be stoned to death under sufficient testimony, Deut. 13. 6, 10. But the faise prophet is there said in general only to be put to death, Deut. 13. 1, 5. Idol. c. 5. s. 1. The main difference between the seducer and false prophet was, & ibi Possium. that the seducer sought by cunning persuasions and plausible arguments to draw them off from the worship of the true God; but the false prophet always pretended divine revelation for what he persuaded them to, whether he gave out that he had that revelation from the true God, or from Idols and false Gods. So that the mere pretence to divine revelation was that which God would have punished with fo great severity.

The Fews tell us of three forts of prophets who were to be punished with death by men, and three other forts who were referved to divine punishment: Of the first rank were these; 1. He V. Except. Gem. that prophesied that which he had not heard, and for this they Sanhed. c. 10. instance in Zedekiah the son of Chenaanah, who made him s. 3. horns of iron, and faid, Thus faith the Lord, this was the lying prophet. 2. He that speaks that which was revealed not to him but to another, and for this they instance in Hananiah the son 1 King. 22, 11. of Azur, (but how truly I shall not determine) this was the plagiary prophet. 3. He that prophessed in the name of an Idol, Jer. 28. 11. as the prophets of Baal did, this was the idol prophet. These three, when once fully convicted, were to be put to death. The other rank of those which were left to God's hand consisted of these; I. He that stifles and smothers his own prophecy, as Jonas did, by which it may feem that when the divine Spin rit did overshadow the understanding of the prophets, yet it offered no violence to their faculties, but left them to the free determination of their own wills in the execution of their office; but this must be understood of a lower degree of prophecy; for at some times their prophecies were as fire in their bones, that Jer. 2 > 9.

Sect. 2.

they

Maim. de fun-S. 4. V. Abarbinel de Cereth. apud Buxtorf. wort. p. 182. 1 King 13. 9. Ver. 18.

they were never at any rest till they had discharged their office. But withall by the example of fonas, we see, that though the Spirit of prophecy, like the fire on the Altar, could only be kindled from beaven, yet it might be destroyed when it was not maintained with fomething to feed upon; or when it met not with fuitable entertainment from the spirits of those it fell upon, it might retreat back again to heaven, or at least lie hid in the embers till a new blast from the Spirit of God doth dva-Comvesive, retrieve it into its former heat and activity. Thus it was with Jonas. 2. The other was, He that despised the words of a true prophet; of such God saith, Deut. 18. 19. And it shall come to pass, that whosever will not hearken to my words which he shall speak in my name, I will require it of him. Which Maimonides explains by בירי שמים, death by the bands dam legis, c. 9. of God, which he thus distinguisheth from the Cereth, that he makes the death per manus cali, to be less than the Cereth, because this latter continued in the soul after death, but the other ae spons. & di- was expiated by death; but generally they interpret it of a sudden death which falls upon the person. 2. The last is, he who hearkens not to the words of his own prophecy; of which we have a most remarkable instance in Scripture, concerning the Prophet whom God fent to Bethel (whom Tertullian calls Sameas, the Fews, Hedua) whom God destroyed in an unusual manner for not observing the command which God had given him; not to eat bread nor drink water at Bethel, nor turn again by the way be came. Neither was it any excuse to this Prophet that the old Prophet at Bethel told him that an Angel spake unto him by the word of the Lord, that he should turn back. For, I. Those whom God reveals his will unto, he gives them full affurance of it, in that they have a clear and distinct perception of God upon their own minds; and so they have no doubt, but it is the Word of the Lord which comes unto them; but this Prophet could have no fuch certainty of the divine revelation which was made to another, especially when it came immediately to contradict that which was fo specially enjoyned him. 2. Where God commands a Prophet to doe any thing in the pursuit of his message, there he can have no ground to question whether God should countermand it or no by another Prophet; because that was in effect to thwart the whole design of his message. So it was in this action of the Prophet; for God intended his not cating

eating and drinking in Bethel to testifie how much he loathed

and abominated that place fince its being polluted with Idolarry. 2. He might have just cause to question the Integrity of the old Prophet, both because of his living in Bethel, and not openly, according to his office, reproving their Idolatry, and that God should fend him out of Judaa upon that very errand, which would not have feemed fo probable, if there had been true Prophets resident upon the place. 4. The thing he defired him to do, was not an act of that weight and importance on which God used to send his Word to any Prophets, much less by one Prophet to contradict what he had said by another, and therefore Tertullian faith of him, panam deserti De jejuniis jejunii luit, God punished him for breaking his Fast at Bethel; cap. 16. and therefore that message of this Prophet seemed to gratifie more mans carnal appetite, than usually the actions of Prophets did, which were most times matters of bardship and uneasiness to the flesh. 5. However all these were, yet he yielded too foon, especially having so much reason on his side as he had; being well assured that God had commanded him, he had reason to see some clear evidence of a countermand, before he altered his mind: if he had feen any thing upon tryal which might have ftaggered his faith, he ought to have made his immediate recourse to God by prayer for the settlement of his mind and removal of this great temptation. But so easily to hearken to the words of a lying Prophet, which contradicted his own mesfage, argued either great unbelief as to his own commission, or too great easiness and inadvertency in being drawn aside by the old Prophet. And therefore God made that old Prophet himself in the midst of his entertainment, as with a hand-writing against the wall to tell him be was weighed in the balance and found too light, and therefore his life should be taken from him. Thus we fee how dangerous a thing it was either to counterfeit a Spirit of Prophecy, or to hearken to those who did.

It is the generally received opinion among the Fewish Doctors, that the cognizance and tryal of false Prophets did peculiarly belong to the great Sanbedrin. And that this was one end of its institution. So Maimonides after he hath largely discour- De Idololat. sed of the punishment of a seducer, and speaking of that of a c. 5. s. 11. false Prophet, he lays this down as a standing rule among them

ואין רנין נכיא השקר אלא בבר של עיה, No false Prophet 221AS Sect. 2

Jer. 26. 8.

Ver. 10.

Jer. 26. 16.

Jer. 38. 5.

number of the great Sanhedrin. And there is some thing looks very like this in the proceedings of the people of Israel against the Prophet feremiah; for the people, the Priests and the Prophets. they laid bold on him; and immediately after we read that the Princes of Judah (by whom Grotius understands the Senators of the great Sanhedrin) they came up from the Kings house to V. Grot. in 1.6 the house of the Lord, and sat down in the entry of the new gate Selden. de Syn. of the Lords house; (which probably was the place where the l. 2. c. 15. f. 4. & 1.3. c. 6. f. 4. great Sanbedrin sate) where after a particular examination of Feremiah, they acquit him as a person not worthy to die upon a counterfeiting Prophecy, but declare that he spake unto them in the name of the Lord. And in this fence Grotius likewise understands what is said of Zedekiah concerning Feremiah to the Princes of Judah afterwards, Behold he is in your hand; for the King is not be that can do ought against you; i. e. saith Grotius, in manibus Synedrii cujus est judicare de Propheta vero aut falso. And to this many make those words of our Savi-

Luk. 13. 33.

rusalem, because the seat of the great Sanhedrin was in fe-Matth. 23. 70. rusalem; and so elsewhere our Saviour faith, O ferusalem, ferusalem, thou that killest the Prophets and stonest them which are sent unto thee; because there it was the true Prophets were destroyed as though they had been false ones, and Gods own messengers punished with the death of seducers, which was lapidation. And on this very account many are of opinion that our Saviour was condemned by the Sanbedrin at ferusalem; which is supposed to have been affembled in the house of Caiaphas the High Priest, when Christ was carried thither for examination; which some think to have been at his lodgings in the Temple, others at his Palace in the City. For we read that the Chief Priests, and the Elders, and all the Council were Matth. 26. 59. met together at the High Priest's Palace in order to our Savi-

our refer, that it is impossible a Prophet should perish out of Te-

our's tryal. The next morning they were met early together again in order to the further (canning of this business; but they feem not to examine Christ concerning atrue spirit of Prophecy,

but concerning his being the Mellias, and calling himself the Matth. 26. 63. Son of Ged, and so they would feem rather to proceed upon the Law against blasphemy, than that against falle Prophets.

But that which was the greatest fecurity of the people a-Sect. 4. gainst

gainst the imposture of false Prophets, was the certain rules of

judging them which were laid down in the Law of Moses; Which may be comprehended under these two heads, such as concern their decirine, or fuch as concern their predictions. First, such as concerned the Prophets doctrine, which should especially be looked after, because the main office of a Prophet was to be interpres & internuncius divinæ voluntatis, to be a revealer of God's will to men. For the primary notion of a Prophet doth not lie in foretelling future events, but in declaring and interpreting to the world the mind of God which he receives by immediate revelation from himself. So that the receiving what he makes known by immediate revelation, is that which formally constitutes a Prophet; but it is wholly extrinsecal and accidental what time his Prophecy respects, whether past, present, or to come; but because future contingencies are the furthest out of the reach of humane understanding, therefore the predictions of fuch have been chiefly looked on as the chief note and Character of a Prophet, as being apprehended to be the frongest evidence of Divine revelation. And from hence Psal. 105. 15. it is in Scripture that the Patriarchs as Abraham and others Gen. 20. 7. are called Prophets, not because of any predictions uttered by them, but because of the frequency of immediate Divine revelations among them. And hence likewise those in the New Testament who expounded the Scriptures, by immediate inspirationare called Prophets; and this was the a more hutes spo- 1 Cor. 14. 26. ken of by the Apostle, the exposition of the bidden mysteries of the Old Testament by an immediate inspiration. And there is no word in the Hebrew for a Prophet, which may not equally respect all differences of time, but every one doth import immediate inspiration; for XIII properly is one qui revelat abscondita; TR7 a Seer chiefly respects the clear representation of the intellectual species by the lumen propheticum to the understan-Vid. Alstedii ding, and TITI carriesan equal indifferency to all circumstances of Trifal. propts. times.

This being then the chief notion of a Prophet, whatever he Sect. 5. declared as the mind and will of God, must be searched and examined, to see what consonancy it hath thereto. For the queftion which Moses supposeth, is founded upon clear and evident reason, And if theu shalt say in thine heart, How shall we know Deut. 18. 23. the Word which the Lord hath not (poken? For it being plain that

there

I.

there may be false Prophets as well as true, we had need of some certain rules to judge of what is delivered for divine revelation. For the clearing of which important question, I lay

down these prine rles.

The immediate dictates of natural light are no sufficient standard to judge of divine revelation by. I mean not in reference to consonancy or repugnancy to natural light, but in reference to the extent and latitude of divine revelation, i. e. that natural light doth not contain in it whatever may be known of God or of his Will; and that upon these reasons: 1. It implies no repugnancy to any dictate of nature, that God should reveal any thing more of his mind and will, than is contained in the light of nature. 2. Nature reacheth, as to matters concerning religion, no further than the obligation to duty, but leaves the particular determination of the manner of obedience to divine positive Laws, as is clear in reference to the time, place, and particular duties of worship. 3. Nature owning an universal obligation to the will of God in whatever he shall command, doth suppose a power in God to command what he pleaseth. 4. Nature is sensible of its own decays, and the imperfection of its own light, and therefore seems rather to require further illumination, than to put any bar against it. 5. Man's happines being a free gift of God's, it stands to the highest reason that he should have the prescribing of the conditions which are in order to it; now these conditions being the results, not of God's nature, but of his arbitrarious will, it is impossible that natural light could ever reach to the full discovery of them. 6. It hath been the general sense of all Nations in the world, that God may reveal more of his will than nature can reach unto; which fense discovers it self in two things. 1. Praying to their several gods for direction. 2. Hearkening after pretended oracles, which the Devil could never have had that advantage of deceiving the world by, had it not been for this general sense of mankind, that there wanted some particular revelation from God to make men bappy. So then this may be affumed as a principle, That God may reveal more of his mind and will to mankind, than he hath done by the distates of mere natural light and reason.

2. Whatever speaks a direct repugnancy to any of the fundamen-Sect. 6. tal dictates of nature, cannot be of divine revelation. For those being founded, not upon any positive or arbitrary will, but upon those inward impressions which are derived from the divine nature its felf, it cannot in reason be supposed that God should commission any to enervate his own fundamental Law; and so by one will to contradict another. Placitum Regis must never stand against the Placita Coronæ: Those things which depend upon fundamental and established Laws, hold good against any positive sentence or declaration of a Prince's will; Because he is supposed to have bound up himself by the established Laws; and therefore any thing else which comes from him, contrary to them, is supposed not to be the Will of the Frince, but of the persons persuading him to it. But this now cannot be supposed in God, that he should be any ways drawn to cassate the obligation of what is imprinted upon the souls of men as his own Law. But yet we must distinguish between nulling the general obligation, and altering the particular nature of any thing which depends upon that general Law, the first in any case is impossible, that any divine revelation should make it not to be mans duty to obey his maker, or not to be a fin to commit murder, to lye, or to steal from another; but there may come a particular revelation from God to alter the respects and nature of such things as do immediately depend upon his own dominion; as the lives of persons and the properties of things are; and thus God did reveal to Abraham that he should go and sacrifice his son, which had been no murder when done upon God's immediate command, and for a facrifice to himself, and therefore would have been acceptable as a testimony of entire obedience (which God did accept without the att) and so the Israelites taking the Agyptians Fewels, and dispossessing the Canaanites, did depend upon God's immediate disposal of these things to them; which otherwise had been a sin in them, and no doubt was so to any that were unsatisfied whether God had immediately commanded it or no. Or from hence to inferr any general rule, is no doubt a breach of divine commands, and contrary to his nature and will.

where God hath established a positive Law, prescribing a form and manner wherein he will be worshipped, it is sufficient evidence of a salse Prophet, to go about to null the obligation of that Law; unless there be as great evidences given, that God did intend the establishing a new Law by that person, as he did at sirst the institution of the old by the hand of Moses. This latter clause is inserted,

3. Sect. 7. 162

into the place of the Law of Moses, doth not bear any repugnancy to the Hypothesis laid down, there being greater evidences of God's intending the abolishing the ceremonial Law by the Gospel of Christ, than there were of the establishment of it by Moses. But of those afterwards. I now only speak of such as upon the mere pretence of divine revelation, should destrey any precept of an established positive Law; and this, as far as we can find, was the great rule the Fews went by; if any thing were spoken by any Prophet, contrary to the Law of Mofes, or tending to the alteration of the worship of God establithed thereby, he was accounted a false Prophet. The modern Fews to justifie themselves in their own unbelief, as to the doctrine of Christ, extend this further than the Law doth; for they enlarge it to all the precepts of the ceremonial Law; whereas God in the Law feems to limit it to the Moral Law, and chiefly infifts on the three first precepts of the Decalogue; and therefore condemns fuch a one as spake in the name of the Lord, when he had not commanded them, Deut. 18.20. and fuch as endeavoured to bring in idolatry, Deut. 13. 1, 2, 3. where though the false Prophet should offer to do signs and wonders before them, yet if his intention were to draw them to worship false Gods, they were not to hearken unto him. And therefore Maimonides, where he largely disputes about the truth of pro-Defundam. leg. phecies, lays this down as a certain rule : Si Propheta surrexerit, atque magna miracula aut prodigia fecerit & adlaboraverit falsitatis convincere Prophetiam Moss M. N. istum non audimus, quia certò novimus prodigium præstigiis aut incantationibus productum esse, as Vorstius renders him. If a Prophet do never so great miracles, and seeks to convince Moses of falshood, we are not to hearken to him; for we know that they are not done by the power of God, but by the illusions of the Devil. And elsewhere he tells us, that if any one pretends to prophefy בשם עכויים in the name of Idols, they must not so much as dispute with him, nor answer him, nor desire any signs or miracles from him; and if of himself he shews any, we are not to regard or mind them; for, faith he, whoever doth but doubt in his mind concerning them, he breaks that command, and thou shalt not hearken to the words of that Prophet. So that the doctrine once established, ought to be our most certain rule, according to which we must judge

inferted, to shew that the succeeding of the dostrine of Christ.

c. 8. f. 7.

De Idololat. c. 5. s. 9.

Deut. 13. 3.

judge of all pretenders to miracles, if their design be to draw men off from God's Word, we are not to hearken to what they

either fay or do.

The doctrine of those Prophets who seek not to introduce Idolatry, must not be measured by a strict conformity to the words of Moses his law, but to the main reason and intention of it. The great reason of this is, because God did not intend the Fews should always rest in the Padagogy of the Ceremonial Law, but fent them Prophets to train them up by degrees, and to fit them for a state of greater perfection; and therefore it would be very unreasonable to judge whether they were true Prophets or no, exactly by that which they came gradually to wean them from; which were all one, as to try one whether he were grown a man or no, by the swadling clouts he wore when he was a child. God tempered the Ceremonial Law much according to the condition and capacity of the persons it was prescribed to, and therefore the sanctions of it did immediately respect their temporary concerns; but we are not to think the end of that dispensation was to be merely a Covenant for the Land of Promise; but as the Cherubims in the Temple did always look towards the Mercy-feat, so did this whole Oeconomy look towards the coming of the Messas. But it was with the generality of the Fews, as it is with Ignorant people, who looking up to the heavens, cannot fansie the stars to be any bigger than they feem to them; but Astronomers by the help of their Optick tubes and Telescopes, do easily discern the just magnitude of them; so the Fews ordinarily thought there was no more in those types and shadows, than was visibly represented to them; but fuch as had the help of the Divine Spirit (the best Telescope to discern the day-star from on high with) could easily look through those prospectives, into the most glorious mysteries of the Gospel of Fesus Christ. These types being like triangular Prismes, that must be set in a due light and posture, before they can represent that great variety of spiritual mysteries which was contained in them. Now the great office of the Prophets was to administer this light to the people, and to direct them in those excellent pieces of Perspective, wherein by the help of a Prophetick glass, they might see the Son of God fully represented to their view. Besides this, the Prophetical office was a kind of Chancery to the Mosaick Law,

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wherein the Prophets did interpret the PandeEts of the Law ex aguo & bono, and frequently shewed in what cases God did dispense with the outward letter of it, to exalt the more the inward sence and reason of it. Hence the Prophet seem many Pfal. 50. 8. times to speak contemptibly of the outward prescrib eremo--51.16. Ifa. 1. 11, 13. nies, when their intent is not to condemn the objection of them, but to tell the people there were greater thing, which Jer. 7. 21, 22, 23. God looked at, than the outward observation of fome Cere-

monial precepts, and that God would never accept of that by way of commutation, for real and internal goodness. Hence the Prophets by their own practice, did frequently shew that the Law of Moses did not so indispensibly oblige men, but that God would accept of those actions which were performed without the regularity required by the Law of Moses; and thus he did of facrificing upon high places, not only before the building of the

I King 18. 38. Temple, but sometimes after, as he accepted of the sacrifice of Elijah on Mount Carmel, even when high places were forbidden. Which the Fews are become so sensible of, that

Vid. Farchi in Deut. 18. 21. Et Vorft. ad F. 9. J. 5,6,7.

they grant that a true Prophet may sometimes command something to be done in violation of the Law of Moses, so he doth not draw people to Idolatry, nor destroy the obligation of Moses Maim. de fund. his Law. But this they restrain to לפי שעה fomething done in case of necessity, and that it should not pass into a precedent or a perpetual Law; and therefore their rule is לפי שעה שומענו לו בכל. The Prophet was to be hearkened to in every thing he commanded in a case of necessity. But by this it is clear that the Prophets were not to be tryed by the letter of the Law of Moses, but by the end and the reason of it. Thus much I suppose will make it clear what rules the people had to try the Prophets doctrine by, without miracles.

CHAP. VI.

The Tryal of Prophetical Predictions and Miracles.

The great difficulty of the trying the truth of prophetical Predi-Etions from Jer. 18. 7, 8, &c. Some general Hypotheses premiled for the clearing of it. The first concerns the grounds why Predictions are accounted an evidence of divine revelation. Three Consectaries drawn thence. The second, the manner of God's revelation of his will to the minds of the Prophets. Of the several degrees of prophecy. The third is, that God did not always reveal the internal purposes of his willunto the true Prophets. The grand question propounded, How it may be known when Predictions express God's decrees, and when only the series of causes. For the first several rules laid down. I. When the prediction is confirmed by a present miracle. 2. When the things foretold exceed the probability of second causes. 2. When confirmed by God's oath. 4. When the bleffings foretold are purely spiritual. Three rules for interpreting the prophecies which respect the state of things under the Gospel 5. When all circumstances are foretold. 6. When many Prophets in several ages agree in the same predictions. Predictions do not express God's unalterable purposes, when they only contain comminations of judgments, or are predictions of temporal blessings. The case of the Ninevites, Hezekiah, and others, opened. Of repentance in God, what it implies. The Fewish objections about predictions of temporal blessings an-(wered. In what cases miracles were expected from the Prophets: when they were to confirm the truth of their religion. Instanced in the Prophet at Bethel, Elijah, Elisha and Moses bimself; whose divine authority that it was proved by miracles, is demonstrated against the modern Fews, and their pretences: answered.

THE next thing which the rules of tryal concerned, was the predictions of the Prophets. Concerning which God himfelf hath laid down this general rule, Deut. 18.22. When a Prophet speaketh in the name of the Lord, if the thing follow not,

Ans. I.

because

nor come to pass, that is the thing which the Lord hath not soken, but the rophet hath spoken it presumptuously; thou shalt not be afraid of him. Grotius understands this place of the Prophet's telling the people he would doe some miracles to confirm his do-Etrine; but, faith he, if those miracles were not done as he said. it was an evident demonstration of a false prophet. It is certain it was so; for then his own mouth told him he was a lying prophet; but these words seem to refer, rather to something future than present, and are therefore generally understood concerning the truth of predictions; which was a matter of very difficult tryal, in regard of the goodness or the justice of God so frequently interposing between the prediction and the event. That place which makes it so difficult to discern the truth of a prediction by the event, is Jer. 18.7, 8, 9, 10. At what instant I shall speak concerning a Nation, and concerning a Kingdom, to pluck up, and to pull down, and destroy it; If that Nation against whom I have pronounced, turn from evil, I will repent of the evil I had thought to doe unto them; And at what instant I shall speak concerning a Nation, and concerning a Kingdom, to build and to plant it; if it doe evil in my fight, that it obey not my voice, then will I repent of the good wherewith I faid I would benefit them. By which place it feems clear, that even after the predictions of Prophets, God doth reserve a liberty to himself, either to repent of the evil or the good that was foretold concerning any people; how then can the fidelity of a Prophet be discovered by the event, when God may alter the event, and yet the Prophet be a true Prophet? This being a cafe very intricate and obscure, will call for the more diligence in the unfolding of it: In order to which, we shall first premise some general Hypotheses, and then come to the particular resolution of it. The general Hypotheles will be concerning the way and method of God's revealing future contingencies to the Prophets, without which it will be impossible to resolve the particular emergent cases concerning predictions.

The prediction of future events is no further an argument of a prophetick Spirit, than as the fore-knowledge of those things is supposed to be out of the reach of any created understanding, and therefore God challengeth this to himself in Scripture, as a peculiar prerogative of his own, to declare the things that are to come, and thereby manifests the Idols of the Gentiles to be no Gods,

a Hypoth.

Sect. 2.

Chap. 6. The Truth of Scripture-History afferted.

because they could not shew to their worshippers the things to come, Isa. 44.6, 7. From this Hypothesis these three Consectaries follow:

ceed the reach of any created intellect; for otherwise it could be no evidence of a Spirit of true Prophecy; so that the foretelling of such events as depend upon a series of natural causes, or such as though they are out of the reach of humane understanding, yet are not of the diabolical, or such things as fall out casually true, but by no certain grounds of prediction, can

none of them be any argument of a Spirit of Prophecy.

2. That where there were any other evidences, that the Prothet hake by Divine Revelation; there was no reason to wait the fulfilling of every particular Prophecy before he was believed as a Prophet. If so, then many of God's chiefest Prophets could not have been believed in their own Generations; because their Prophecies did reach fo far beyond them, as Isaiah's concerning Cyrus, the Prophet at Bethel concerning Josias: and all the Prophecies concerning the captivity and deliverance from it. must not have been believed till fulfilled, that is, not believed at all: for when Prophecies are accomplished, they are no longer the objects of faith, but of fense. Where then God gives other evidences of Divine inspiration, the credit of the Prophet is not suspended upon the minute accomplishment of every event foretold by him. Now it is evident there may be particular Divine revelation of other things belides future contingencies, fo that if a reason may be given, why events once foretold may not. come to pass, there can be no reason why the credit of any Prophecy should be invalidated on that account; because every event is not exactly correspondent to the prediction. It is most certain that whatever comes under divine knowledge, may be divinely revealed; for the manifestation which is caused by any light, may extend it self to all things to which that light is extended: but that light which the Prophet faw by was a divine light, and therefore might equally extend it self to all kind of objects; but because future contingencies are the most remote from humane knowledge, therefore the foretelling of these hath been accounted the great evidence of a true Prophet; but yet there may be a knowledge of other things in a lower degree than future contingencies, which may immediately depend upon divine revelation; and these are, I. Such

1. Such things which cannot be known by one particular man, but yet are certainly known by other men; as the present knowledge of things done by persons at a remote distance from 2 King. 5. 26. them: thus Elisha knew what Gehazi did, when he followed Naaman; and thus the knowledge of the thoughts of another's heart depends upon immediate divine revelation, whereas every one may certainly know the thoughts of his own heart; and therefore to some those things may be masters of sense or evident demonstration, which to another may be a matter of immediate

diate revelation.

- 2. Such things as relate not to future contingencies, but are matters of faith exceeding the reach of humane apprehension; fuch things as may be known when revealed, but could never have been found out without immediate revelation; such all the mysteries of our religion are, the mystery of the Trinity, Incarnation, Hypostatical union, the Death of the Son of God for the pardon of the sins of mankind. Now the immediate revelation of either of these two sorts of objects speaks as much a truly Prophetical spirit as the prediction of future contingencies. So that this must not be looked on as the just and adequate rule to measure a spirit of Prophecy by; because the ground of judging a Prophetical spirit by that, is common with other things without that, feeing other objects are out of the reach of humane understanding as well as future events, and therefore the discovery of them must immediately slow from divine revelation.
- 3. The revelation of future events to the understanding of a Prophet, is never the less immediate, although the event may not be correspondent to the prediction. So that if it be manifest that God immediately reveal such future contingencies to a Prophet, he would be nevertheless a true Prophet whether those predictions took effect or no. For a true Prophet is known by the truth of divine revelation to the person of the Prophet, and not by the success of the thing, which, as is laid down in the hypothesis, is no further an evidence of a true Prophet, than as it is an argument à posteriori to prove divine revelation by. If then the alteration of events after predictions be reconcilable with the truth and faithfulness of God, there is no question but it is with the truth of a Prophetical spirit, the formality of which lies in immediate revelation.

The Prophets could not declare any thing more to the people than was immediately revealed unto themselves. What was present-2. Hypoth. ly revealed, so much they knew, and no more, because the pirit of Prophecy came upon them per modum impressionis transeuntis, as the Schools speak, and not per modum habitus; the lumen propheticum was in them, not as lumen in corpore lucido, but as lumen in acre; and therefore the light of revelation in their firits depended upon the immediate irradiations of the Divine spirit. The Prophets had not always a power to prophesie when they would themselves; and thence it is said, when they prophesied, that the Word of the Lord came unto them. And therefore the Schools determine, that a Prophet upon an immediate revelation did not know omnia prophetabilia (as they speak in their barbarous language) all things which God might reveal; the reason whereof Aquinas thus gives; the ground, 2, 2, 9, 171. faith he, of the connexion of divers objects together is some com-art. 2.-4. mon tie or principle which joyns them together; as charity or prudence is in moral vertues; and the right understanding of the principles of a science, is the ground why all things belonging to that science are understood; but now in Divine revelation, that which connects the objects of Divine revelation is God himself; now, because he cannot be fully apprehended by any humane intellect, therefore the understanding of a Prophet cannot comprehend all matters capable of being revealed, but only such as it pleaseth God himself freely to communicate to the Prophet's understanding by immediate revelation. This is further evident by all those different degrees of illumination and prophecy which the Fews and other Writers speak so much of, viz. of dreams and visions, the inspirations of the Holy Spirit, the gradus Mosaicus, the external voice, &c. Now in every one of these degrees the Prophet could go no further than his present revelation extended; and therefore Aquinas determines, That the understandings of the Prophets were instrumenta desicientia respectu principalis agentis, 2. 2. 9. 173. i. e. that in prophetical illumination the mind of the Prophet art. 3. was fo moved by the Spirit of God, as an instrument in the hand of an Artificer, which bears no proportion with the skill of the workman: And therefore the mind of a Prophet is moved fometimes only to apprehend the thing represented (which they call instinctus Divinus, of which they say a Prophet may have no certainty whether it comes from God or no) some-

times it is moved so far as to know certainly that this revelation is from God (this they call lumen propheticum;) sometimes a Prophet may be moved to speak those things which he fully understands; so it was with most of the true Prophets; but sometimes men may be moved to speak that which they understand not, as is plain in Caiaphas, and probable in Balaam. Sometimes a thing was represented to the fancy of one without any possibility of understanding the meaning of those imaginary species, as in Pharaoh's and Nebuchadnezzar's dreams; and to another may be given the true judgment of those motions of fancy without the representation of the things to them, as in foseph and Daniel. Now in these and many other different impressions of this prophetical spirit, the Prophets, to whom the things were revealed, could go no further than the degree of the revelation made to them did extend.

Sect. 4.

God did not always reveal to the Prophets the internal counsels and decrees of his own will, but often only the method and series of his providence in the administration of things in the world. Which is the ground of that threefold distinction of Prophecy in the Schools, into Prophetia prædestinationis, Prophetia præscientia, and Prophetia comminationis; which is taken from the ordinary gloss upon Matth. 1. where they are thus explained; the Prophecy of predestination is, when the event depends wholly upon God's will, without any respect to ours, as the Prophecy of the Incarnation of Christ; the Prophecy of Prescience is of such things as depend upon the liberty of man's will; and the Prophecy of Commination only denotes God's denunciations of heavy judgments against a people. But Aquinas doth better reduce the two former to one, and so the ground of the difference is to be fetched from the different ways whereby God knows things in the World; which is either as they are in their causes, and fo they note the order and series of things in the world, with the mutual respects and dependencies they have one upon another, and this refers to God's administration of things in the world; or else God looks upon them as they are in themselves, or according to his own positive determinations of them; and now in this sence they are unalterable; but in the other they are not; but God may alter those respects of things when he pleaseth. Now though this different manner of knowledge can never be conceived separate from one another in the Divine understanding,

derstanding, yet in the revelation made to the mind of a Prophet, they may be disjoyned from each other, because God doth not always reveal things in the highest degree to the Prophets; for no free Agent doth always att as far as he can. And therefore prophetical revelation is sometimes a representation of God's internal decrees, and then they always take effect; and sometimes only the order of causes and effects, and they may admit of an alteration, and the Prophecy nevertheless be true, because then it referred only to the feries of causes in the world according to which the events would follow if God himself did not interpose. These things being thus premised, we come to particular resolutions, which must arise from the evidences that may be given when prophetical predictions did express God's internal purpose and decree, and when only the order of the causes in the world; for in these latter it is apparent that events might not answer predictions, and yet the Prophet be a true Prophet: which is a matter of greater difficulty, viz. to find out the exact differences of these two, till the event hath made it apparent which came from God's unalterable purpose, and which not. But though it be a subject little spoken to either by fewish or Christian Writers, yet we are in hopes there may be some fuch clear notes of distinction discovered between them, even à priori, which may sufficiently clear God's faithfulness, and the Prophet's truth, though the event be not always correspondent to the words of a prediction.

I begin then with the evidences that may be given when

predictions do flow from internal purpose and decree.

Every prediction confirmed by a present miracle, doth not.express merely the order of causes, but the determinations of God's will, because there can be no sufficient reason given why the order of causes in nature should be altered to express the dependences of things on each other; for herein a miracle would rather tend to weaken than strengthen faith, because the end of the miracle would be to confirm their faith as to events following upon their causes; but now the medium used for that end seems to prove the contrary, viz. That God can alter the series of causes when he pleases himself, by working miracles, and therein going contrary to the course of nature; and therefore a miracle seems to be a very incongruous argument in this, because its self is an evidence that may be, which it comes to prove shall

Sect. 5.

I.

not be. But when Prophets come to declare the internal purposes of the will of God concerning future contingencies, no argument can be more suitable to demonstrate the truth of what is spoken, than the working of a present miracle, for this demonstrates to the senses of men, that however unlikely the event may be to them which is foretold, yet with God all things are possible, and that it is very unlikely God would fend fuch a messenger to declare a falshood, whom he entrusted with so great a power as that of working miracles. Thus it was in that remarkable Prophecy concerning Josias by the man of 1 King. 13. 3. God at Bethel, 260 years before his birth, which though it were to come to pass so long after, God confirmed it by a fign, which was the renting of the Altar, and the pouring out of the ashes upon it, and the withering of Jeroboam's hand. We cannot therefore in reason think that God would set so clear a seal to any

deed which he did intend himself to cancel afterward.

Predictions express God's inward purpose, when the things foretold do exceed all probabilities of second causes; in which case though those words of Tertullian seem very harsh, credo quia impossibile: yet taking that impossibility as relating to second causes. and the ground of faith to be some divine prediction, we see what reason there may be for them: For the more unlikely the thing is to be effected by second causes, the greater evidence is it, that the Prophets in foretelling it did not respect the mere order of things in the world, but the unalterable counsels of the will of God, which therefore would certainly have their timely accomplishments. When therefore any Prophets did foretell things above the reach of natural causes, and those things did not come to pass, it was a certain evidence of a false Prophet, as the contrary was of a true one; for none could know fo long before-hand fuch things as were above all humane power, but fuch to whom God himself, who alone was able to effect them, did reveal and communicate the knowledge of them. And hence we see in Scripture those predictions which have seemed to carry the greatest improbabilities with them, have had the most punctual accomplishments, as the Israelites returning out of Agypt at the end of the 430 years; their deliverance by Cyrus

Gal. 3. 17. after the captivity in Babylon, which seemed so improbable

Ifa. 44. 25,26, a thing, that when God speaks of it, he ushers it in with this Preface, That he frustrates h the tokens of the lyers, and maketh

the

the deviners mad, but confirmeth the word of his fervant, and performeth the counsel of his messengers, that saith to Ferusalem, Thou shalt be inhabited, &c. The more unlikely then the thing was to come to pass, the greater evidence there was in so clear a prophecy of it so long before (above 100 years) and so exact a fulfilling of it afterwards precisely at the expiring of the

LXX years from the first Captivity.

Fredictions concerning future events, which are confirmed by an oath from God himself, do express the immutable determinations of God's will. For which we have the greatest assurance we can desire from that remarkable expression of the Apostle to the Hebrews. Heb. 6. 17, 18. Wherein God willing more abundantly to shew unto the heirs of promise the immutability of his counsel, confirmed it by an oath, that by two immutable things in which it was impossible for God to lye, we might have a strong consolation, &c. Wherein the Apostle obviates and removes all doubts and misprifions, lest God after the declaring of his will should alter the event foretold in it, and that he doth, both by shewing that God hath made an absolute promise, and withal to prevent all doubts, lest some tacite condition might hinder performance, he tells us that God had annexed his oath to it, which two things were the most undoubted evidences of the immutability of God's counsel. The word Yeu'se Da, here used, doth in Scripture often note the frustrating of mens hopes and expectations; fo it is used, Hab. 2. 17. Ψεύσεται έρρον ελαίας, we render it the labour of the Olive shall fail. So Hos. 9.2. 2 & 810 G-ELEUTATO autes, and the new wine shall fail in her. Thus the meaning here is, that by two immutable things in which it is impossible that God should frustrate the expectations of men, or alter the events of things after he had declared them. For God's oath is an evident demonstration of the immutability of his will in all predictions to which this is annexed, and doth fully exclude that which the Scripture calls repenting in God, that is, doing otherwise than the words did seem to express, because of fome tacite conditions understood in them. So we find Pfal. 89. 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36. If they break my statutes, and keep not my commandments, then will I visit their transgression with the rod, and their iniquity with stripes; nevertheless my loving kindness will I not utterly take from him, nor suffer my faithfulness to fail; my Covenant will I not break; nor alter the thing that is

Sect. 6.

Book II.

gone out of lips. Once have I sworn by my holiness, that I will not lye unto David. His feed shall endure for ever, and his throne as the Sun before me. Wherein we fee what way God takes to affures us of the immutability of his Covenant with his people, by the oath which he adjoyns to his promifes; whereby God doth most fully express the unalterable determinations of his own will, in that he swears by his own holiness that he would not lye unto David, i.e. that he would faithfully perform what he had promised to him. And therefore Tertullian well faith, Beati sumus quorum causa Deus jurat, sed miseri & detestabiles si ne juranti quidem credimus. It is happy for us believing creatures, that God stoops so low as to confirm his Covenant with an oath; but it will be fad and miserable for fuch as dare not venture their faith upon it, when God hath annexed his oath unto it. It is thought by expositors, that there is a peculiar emphasis in those words, אהרת נשבעתו Once have I sworn, thereby noting the irrevocable nature of God's oath, that there is no need of repetition of it as among men, because when once God swears by himself it is the highest demonfration that no conditions whatever shall alter his declared purpose. And therefore the Council of Toledo well explains the different nature of God's Oath and his repentance in Scriptures; Jurare namque Dei est à se ordinata nullatenus convellere; panitere vero eadem ordinata cum voluerit immutare; God is said to swear when he binds himself absolutely to performance: and to repent, when things fall out contrary to the declaration of God's will concerning them; for so it must be understood to be only mutatio sententia, and not consilii, that the alteration may be only in the things, and not in the eternal purpose of God. But fince it is evident in Scripture, that many predictions do imply some tacite conditions, and many declarations of God's will do not express his internal purposes, it seemed necessary in those things which God did declare to be the irrevocable purposes of his will, there should be some peculiar mark and character set upon them for the confirmation of his peoples faith, and this we find to be the annexing an oath to his promises. Thus it is in that grand Instrument of Peace between God and his people, the Covenant of Grace, wherein God was pleased so far to strengthen the faith of his people in it, that he ratifies the articles of peace therein contained, but especially the Ast of Grace,

Come. Talet. 3. 6. 2.

on his own part with an oath, thereby to assure them it was never his purpose to repeal it, nor to fail of performance in it. For we are not to think that an Oath lays any greater obligation upon God for performance, than the mere declaration of his will; it being a part of immutable justice, and consequently necessarily implyed in the Divine nature to perform promises when once made; but God's Oath respects us and not himself, viz. that it might be a testimony unto us that God's will thereby declared is his eternal and unchangeable will, and so the mercies thereby promised are sure mercies; such as are durantantal without any repentance on God's Isa. 55. 3.

part.

Predictions made by the Prophets concerning bleffings merely spiritual, do express God's internal purpose, and therefore must have their certain accomplishment in the time prefixed by the Prophets. The grand reason of this Proposition, is, that the bestowing of blessings merely spiritual, doth immediately flow from the grace and favour of God, and depend not upon conditions on our part, as procuring causes of them, and therefore there can be no account given why God should suspend the performance of fuch promises, which would not more strong-. ly have held why he should not have made any such promises at all. And therefore when we fee that notwithstanding the highest demerits, God made such free promises, we can have no reason to think that any other demerits interposing between the promises and performance, should hinder the accomplishment of them: unless it be inserted in the promises themselves, which is contrary to the nature of free promises: Upon this ground all the promises relating to the Gospel state; and to the Covenant of grace therein contained, must have their due accomplishment in the time and manner prefixed by the Prophets: and therefore the Jews are miserably blind when they suppose the reason why the promise of the Messias is yet deferred after so long expectation of him, is, the sins of their people; for this feems to suppose that God's promise of the Messas did depend upon their own righteousness and worthinels above all other people, which if it doth, they are like to be the most miserable and desperate people the world hath: and belides, if God's intuition of sin makes him deferr the coming of the Messias, his foresight of sin would have hindered him from.

Sect. 7.

Dan. 9. 24.

Sect. 8.

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from ever promising a Messias to come: but this was so far from being a bindrance of God's promise, that the main end of the coming of the Messias was to make reconciliation for iniquity, and to make an end of sin, and to bring ineverlasting righteousness. And we see where-ever the Prophets insist on the Covenant of grace, the great promise contained in it is the blotting out of transgressions, and remembring sins no more, and that merely on the account of God's free love and for his own name's sake: This can be no reason then why predictions concerning spiritual blessings should not have their exact accomplishment, because there can be no bar against free Love, and the bestowing of such mercies which do suppose the greatest unworthiness of them, as Gospel blessings do.

The great difficulty lies in explaining the Prophetical phrases concerning the Gospel state, which seem to intimate a greater advancement and stourishing of peace and holiness therein, than hath as yet been seen in the Christian world; which gives the fews the greater occasion to imagine that the state so much spoken of by the Prophets, is not yet established in the world. But all the difficulty herein ariseth from the want of consideration of the Idiotisms of the Prophetical language, especially where it respects the state of things under the Gospel, concer-

ning which, we may observe these following rules.

The Prophets under the Old Testament, when they speak of things to come to pass in the New, do set them forth by the representation of such things as were then in use among themselves; thus the spiritual worship of the Gospel is prophesied of, under the notion of the legal worship among the fews; the conversion of Agypt to the Gospel, is foretold Isaiah 19. 19, 21. by the setting up of an Altar, and offering sacrifice to the Lord; and the Conversion of the Gentiles in general, by the offering up of incense, Mal. I. II. and the service of God under the Gospel, is set forth by going up to Jerusalem, and keeping the feast of Tabernacles there, Zach 14. 16 and the plentiful effusion of the spirit of God in the miraculous gifts which attended the preaching of the Gospel, is set forth by the Prophet, Toel 2.28. by Prophesying, and dreaming dreams, and feeing visions; not that these things should really be under Gospel times; but that the Prophets meaning might be the better understood by those he spake unto, he sets forth the great mea ure

measure of gifts and Gospel light under those things which were accounted as the highest attainments among themselves. So the great measure and degree of boliness which was to be under Gospel times, is set forth by the Prophet Zachary, Zach. 14. 20. by the placing of the motto which was among the Fews only upon the High Priest's forehead, that this should be so common under the Gospel, that even the bells of the horses should bear it, i. e. those things which seem most remote from a spiritual use, should be devoted to it, as the bells were, which were commonly hanged upon their war-horses in those mountainous Countries; and in the latter part of that verse, the beight and progress of Gospel boliness is described under that phrase, that the pots in the Lords house should be as bowls before the Altar, i. e. should be advanced from a lower and more ignoble service, to a higher and more spiritual degree of holiness. Now the Fews when they observe these and many other Prophetical passages relating to the time of the Messias to run in the old strain of the Law, they presently conclude that the Messias must not innovate any thing concerning their way of worship, but only be some great Prince to give them temporal deliverances, and so expound all these texts in a literal sence, which were only expressed in such a strain, the better to belp the capacities of those they spake them to.

Things absolutely foretold to come to pass in Gospel times in a general manner, are to be understood comparatively in reference to what was before. For when the measure of either grace or knowledge was fo far above what was then among the Fews, that there was scarce any proportion between them, the Prophets made use of fuch expressions to set it forth by, which might raise up the dull apprehension of the Fews to conceive the just meafure and fulness of it. Thus when the Prophets fore-tell the grand increase of spiritual knowledge in Gospel times, they do it in this phrase, they shall not teach every man his neighbour, and every man his brother, saying, Know the Lord, for all shall know me from the least to the greatest, Jer. 31. 23. Where it was far from the Prophet's meaning to exclude all use of teaching under the Gospel, (which is contrary to the end of all the Ordinances of the Gospel) but because teaching doth commonly suppose great Ignorance, he sets forth the abundance of knowledge which should be then, by the exclusion of that

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which doth imply it. So when it is faid that they shall all be taught of God, the meaning is not, that every one that lives in the Gospel state, should be thus effectually taught by the Spirit of God; but that the number of such under the Gospel, should so far exceed those under the Law, that they could hardly apprehend the disproportion between them, unless it had been set forth in so large an expression. Which leads me to the next rule.

3.

Isa. 2. 4. 3-1. 6, 7.

Things foretold as universally or indefinitely to come to pass under the Gospel, are to be understood as to the duty of all, but as to the event only of God's chosen people. Thus when there is so great peace prophesied to be in Gospel times, that then men (hould beat their (words into plow-hares, and spears into pruning-hooks; that the Wolf should lie down with the Lamb, and Leopard with the Kid; that Nation (hould not lift up Sword against Nation, nor learn war any more; with many others to the same purpose; all these speeches are to be understood of what the nature and design of the Gospel tends to, and what is the duty of all that profess it, and what would effectually be in the Christian world, did all that profess the Christian . doctrine, heartily obey the dictates of it; and so far as the Gospel doth prevail upon any, it so far cicurates their wild and unruly natures, that of furious Wolves they become innocent Lambs, and of raging Lions, tender Kids; fo far from burting and injuring others, that they dare not entertain any thoughts of ill will or revenge towards their greatest enemies. And thus we may fee, that notwithstanding the feeming repugnancies of the Prophecies of the Old Testament concerning the state of the New, with the events which have been obferved in it, yet that all those predictions which concerned the bestowing of the spiritual blessings which concerned the Gospel state, have had their punctual accomplishment in the sence they were intended.

Sect. 9.

Predictions concerning future events where not only the thing its self is foretold but the several circumstances of persons, time, and place enumerated, are to have their due accomplishment, and consequently express God's inward purposes. For those promises or comminations which are capable of alteration by some tacite conditions implyed in them, do most commonly run in general terms; or else are spoken by way of immediate address

address to the persons concerned in order to the stirring them up the more to the duty God aims at by those comminations; as when Jonas limited the Ninevites destruction to forty days. But when Prophecies are recorded, not by way of commination but mere prediction, and particular circumstances fet down it stands to reason that such Prophecies must have their certain accomplishment; and that first, because God by setting down the circumstances would give them greater evidences that the predictions came from himself; as when the Prophet at Bethel not only foretold the destruction of the Altar there, but particularly named the man that should do it, viz. Josias. So when God by Isaiah called Cyrus by name, it was doubtless a great confirmation to them, that the deliverance of the Fews, should be by that person. Secondly, because these circumstances . are intended for Landmarks to know the certainty of the accomplishment of the Prophecy. For when they find the circumstances fall out exactly according to prediction, they have no ground to question the accomplishment of the substance of the Prophecy. And hence it was that in the grand Prophecy of the coming of the Messias all particular circumstances were so long before foretold. The first dawning of his day being to Adam after his fall, when the nature he should be born of was foretold, viz. not Angelical but humane, of the feed of the woman. To Abraham it was further revealed of what Nation of mankind, viz. from his posterity; to facob at what time, when the Scepter should be departed from Judah; and from what tribe, viz. Judah; to David of what Family in that tribe, viz. his own; to Isaiah of what Person in that Family, a Virgin; to Micah in what place, viz. Bethlehem; and to Daniel, at what precise time, toward the expiring of his feventy weeks; which according to the most probable computation of them did commence from the seventh year of Artaxerxes Longimanus, and so the 490 years expired near upon our Saviour's passion. Now certainly the particular enumeration of all these circumstances spoken of so long before, and falling out so exactly, could not but give the greatest conviction and evidence, that our blesfed Saviour was that person so much spoken of by the Prophets, in whom all these several lines did meet as in their center:

5.

Lastly, Predictions then express divine purposes when many Prophets in several ages concur in the same predictions; because it is hardly feen but all those tacite conditions which are supposed in general promises or comminations may be altered in different ages; but when the conditions alter, and the predictions continue the same, it is a stronger evidence it is some immutable counsel of God which is expressed in those predictions. And in this cale one prediction confirms the foregoing, as the Jews fav of Prophets; One Prophet that hath the testimony of another Prophet, is supposed to be true; but it must be with this supposition, that the other Prophet was before approved to be a true Prophet. Now both these meet in the Prophecies concerning our Saviour; for to him bear all the Prophets witness: and in their feveral ages they had feveral things revealed to them concerning him; and the uniformity and perfect harmony of all these several Prophecies by persons at so great distance from each other, and being of several interests and imployments. and in several places, yet all giving light to each other, and exactly meeting at last in the accomplishment, do give us yet a further and clearer evidence that all those several beams came from the same Sun, when all those scattered rays were at last gathered into one body again at the appearance of the Sun of righteousness in the world.

Sect. 10.

Thus have we now cleared when predictions are expressive of God's internal purposes; by observation of which rules we may easily resolve the other part of the difficulty when they only express the series and dependencies of things which would have their issue and accomplishment if God by his immediate hand of providence did not cut off the entail of effects upon their natural causes. Now as to these Prophecies which concern things considered in themselves, and not precisely as they are in the counsel of God, we are to observe these rules.

E. Comminations of judgments to come do not in themselves speak the absolute futurity of the event, but do only declare what the persons to whom they are made are to expect, and what shall certainly come to pass, unless God by his mercy interpose between the threatning and the event. So that comminations do speak only the debitum pana and the necessary obligation to punishment;

but therein God doth not bind up himself as he doth in absolute promises; the reason is because comminations confer no right to any, which absolute promises do; and therefore God is not bound to necessary performance of what he threatens. Indeed the guilt, or obligation to punishment is necessary, where the offence hath been committed to which the threatning was annexed; but the execution of that punishment doth still depend upon God's arbitrarious will, and therefore he may suffend or remove it upon serious addresses made to bimself in order to it. For fince God was pleased not to take the present forfeiture of the first grand transgression, but made such a relaxation of that penal Law, that conditions of pardon were admittable, notwithstanding sentence passed upon the malefactors, there is strong ground of presumption in humane nature that God's forbearance of mankind notwithstanding sin, doth suppose his readiness to pardon offenders upon their repentance, and therefore that all particular threatnings of judgments to come do suppose incorrigibleness in those they are pronounced against: Upon which the foundation of hope is built, that if timely repentance do intervene, God will remove those judgments which are threatned against them.

And this was certainly the case of the Ninevites upon Jo- Sect. 172 nas his preaching among them. For when the threatning was so peremptory, Yet forty days, and Nineve shall be destroyed, all Jonah 3.4. the bope they could have of pardon must be from the general persuasions of men's souls of God's readiness to remove judgments upon repentance. For otherwise there had been no place for any thing but despair, and not the least encouragement to supplicate the mercy of God, which we see they did in a most folemn manner after they were convinced these comminations came from God himself by the mouth of his Prophet. Some think that Fonas together with the threatning of judgment did intermix exhortations to repentance; but we can find no probability at all for that on these two accounts; first, Fonas then would not have been so unwilling to have undertaken this message; for as far as we can see, the barshness of it was the main reason he sought to have avoided it by flying to Tarshish. condly, Jonas would have had no pretence at all for his anger and displeasure at God's pardoning Nineve; which is most probably conceived to have been, because the Ninevites might

now suspect him to be no true Prophet, because the event answered not his prediction. Now there had been no reason at all for this, if he had mixed promises together with his threatnings; for then nothing would have fallen out contrary to his own predictions. And therefore it seems evident that the message fonas was fent with, was only the commination of their speedy ruine, which God did on purpose to awaken them the sooner. and with the greater earnest ness to repentance, when the judgment was denounced in so peremptory a manner; although it feems Jonas had before such apprehensions of the mercifull nature of God and his readiness to pardon, that he might suppose God's intention by this severe denunciation of judgment, might be only to take occasion upon their repentance to shew his goodness and bounty to them. But this was no part of his instructions, which he durst not go beyond in his preaching, whatever his private opinion might be; for the Prophets were to utter no more in their preaching or particular messages than was in their commission, and were not to mix their own words with the Word of the Lord.

Sect. 12. Ifa. 38. I.

Jonah 4. 2.

And by this we may further understand the denunciation of death to Hezekiah by the Prophet Isaiah, Set thy house in order, for thou shalt die and not live. I question not but the Prophet revealed to Hezekiah as much as God had revealed to him Wates, 1.1. c.6. (for to fay as Molinaus doth, that the Prophet spake these words of his own head, before he fully understood God's mind, is very barsh and incongruous) but God might at first discover to Isaiab not his internal purpose, but what the nature of the difease would bring him to (unless his own immediate hand of providence interposed) which message he would have Isaiab carry to Hezekiab for the tryal of his faith, and exciting him to the more lively acts of grace, and for a further demonstrati-. on of God's goodness to him in prolonging his life beyond humane probability and the course of second causes. Now what repugnancy is there to the truth and faithfulness of God, that God should conceal from his Prophets in their messages the internal purposes of his will, and in order to the doing good to men should only reveal what would certainly have come to pass unless himself had otherwise determined it. And thus the repentance which is attributed to God in reference to these denunciations of judgments, is far from importing any real mutation in the

the internal purposes of God (a rock some have split themselves upon) but it only fignifies the outward changing of the Scene towards men, and acting otherwise than the words of the Prophets did feem to import; and all the alteration is in the outward discovery of his will, which is certainly far from being any collufion in God: Unless we must suppose God so bound up, that he hath no liberty of using his own methods for bringing men to repentance, or for tryal of his peoples graces, but must in every instance of his Word declare nothing but his own internal purpoles, which is contrary to the general method of God's dealing with the world, which is, to govern men by his own Laws, and thereby to awaken them to duty, and deterr from sin by his annexed threatnings, without revealing any thing of his internal purposes concerning the state and condition of any particular persons at all; which threatnings of his, though pronounced with the greatest severity, do not speak God's inward resolutions as to any particular person, but what all must expect if they continue impenitent and incorrigible. For the only condition implyed in these threatnings being repentance, it necessarily follows, that where that is wanting, these hypothetical comminations are absolute predictions of what shall certainly come to pass on all those who are destitute of the condition supposed in them.

So that where any comminations are pronounced by any in a prophetical way concerning any person or people, and no alteration happen at all in them, but they continue impenitent and incorrigible, there the not coming of them to pass may be a token of a false Prophet. For in this case the only tacite condition implyed in these threatning Prophecies is supposed to be wanting, and so the comminations must be understood as absolute predictions: Now in those comminations in Scripture, which are absolutely expressed, but conditionally understood, we find fomething interposing, which we may rationally suppose was the very condition understood. As Abimelech's restoring of Sarah was the ground why the sentence of death after it was denounced, was not executed upon him: So Ahab's bumi- Gen. 20. 7. liation, Hezekiah his earnest prayer, the Ninevites repentance, 1 King 21. 19. all interposed between sentence and execution, whereby we may be fully satisfied of the reason why these denunciations did not take effect: But where the persons continue the same after

Sect. 12.

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епр. 10. 5. 6.

threatnings that they were before, there is no reason why the sentence should be suspended, unless we should suppose it to be a mere effect of the patience and long-suffering of God, leading men to repentance and amendment of life: Which is the ground the Jews give, why the not fulfilling of denunciations of judgment was never accounted sufficient to prove a man a false Prophet; to which purpose these words of Maimonides De fund legis, are observable in his Fesude Thorab, where he treats particularly on the subject of Prophecies: If a Prophet foretell sadthings, as the death of any one, or famine, or war, or the like; if these things come not to pass, he shall not be accounted a false Prophet; neither let them fay, Behold he hath foretold, and it comes not to pass; for our bleffed God is flow to anger, and richein mercy, and repenteth of the evil; and it may be that they repent, and God may spare them, as he did the Ninevites, or deferr the punishment, as he did Hezekiah's. Thus we see that prophetical comminations do not express God's internal purposes, and therefore the event may not come to pass, and yet the Prophet be a true Prophet.

Sect. 14.

2. Predictions concerning temporal blessings, do not always absolutely speak the certainty of the event, but what God is ready to doe, if they to whom they are made continue faithfull to him: For which we have sufficient ground from that place of Feremiah 18. 9, 10. At what instant I shall speak concerning a Kingdom, to build and to plant it; if it doe evil in my fight, that it obey not my voice, then will I repent of the good wherewith I faid I would benefit them. So Isaiah 1. 19, 20. If ye be willing and obedient, ye shall eat the good of the Land; but if ye refuse and rebell, ye shall be devoured with the sword; for the mouth of the Lord hath spoken it. Whereby we see it evident, that all promises of temporal blessings are not to be taken absolutely, but with the condition of obedience. But this the Ferris can by no means digest, whose rule is, that all prophecies of good things to come must necessarily come to pass, or he was no true Prophet who spake them: For, faith Maimon. Whatever good thing God bath promised, although it be promised under a condition, he never revokes it; and we never find that God repented him of any good thing promised, but in the destruction of the first Temple, when God had promised to the righteous, they should not die with the wicked; but he repented him of his words. But

Ibid. f. 7, 8.

it is very plain to any one that considers the Jewish Interpretations of Scripture, that in them they have always an eye to themselves, and will be fure not to understand those Scriptures which feem to thwart their own interest, as is most apparent in the present case; for the grand reason why the Fews insist so much on the punctual accomplishment of all promises of good to be the high of a true Prophet is, to uphold their own interest in those temporal bleffings which are prophesied of concerning them in the old Testament; although one would think the want of correspondency in the event in reference to themselves, might make them a little more tender of the honour of those Prophecies which they acknowledge to be divine; and have appeared to be so in nothing more than the full accomplishment of all those threatnings which are denounced against them for their disobedience, even by the mouth of Moses himself, Deut. 28. from the 15th. to the end. Can any thing be more plain and evident, than that the enjoyment of all the privileges conferred upon them, did depend upon the condition of their continuing faithfull to God's Covenant? The only place of Scripture produced by them with any plausibility is that, Fer. 28. 9. The Prophet which prophesieth of peace, when the word of the Prophet shall come to pass, then shall the Prophet be known that the Lord hath truly fent him. For reconciling of which place with those already mentioned, we are to understand that here was a particular contest between two Prophets, Hananiah and Feremiah; Feremiah he foretold evil to come, though unwillingly, v. 6. Hananiah he prophesied peace. Now Jeremiah, according to God's peculiar directions and inspiration, appeals to the event to determine whose Prophecy was the truest: Now, saith Feremiah, if the Prophecy of Hananiah concerning peace be fulfilled, then he is the true Prophet, and I the false. And in this case when two Prophets prophesie contrary things, it stands to reason that God will not reveal any thing by the mouth of his own Prophet which shall not infallibly come to pass, that thereby the truth of his own Prophet may be fully manifested. Besides, Feremiah refers not merely to the event foretold, but gives a fudden secimen of his own truth in another Prophecy concerning the death of Hananiah, which was punctually accomplished the same year, ver. 17. And which is most considerable to our purpose, both these Prophets considered the same people under the same Bb circumcircumstances, and with the same conditions; and so feremiah, because of their incorrigibleness, foretels desolation certainly to come; notwithstanding this, Hananiah foretels peace and safety, which was contrary directly to God's method of proceeding, and so the falsity of his Prophecy would infallibly be discovered by the event. So that notwithstanding this instance it appears evident, that predictions of temporal biessings do suppose conditions, and so have not always the event suffilled, when the people do not perform their condition of obedience. And thus we have now laid down the rules whereby the truth of Prophecies was to be judged; by which it appears what little need the constant Prophets had to appeal to miracles to manifest the certainty of Divine revelation in them. So we have finished our first proposition concerning the manner of trying Divine revelation in the Prophets God sent among his people.

Sect. 15.

We now come to the fecond general proposition concerning the Prophets. Those Prophets whom God did imploy upon some extraordinary message for confirming the truth of the religion established by him, had a power of miracles conferr'd upon them in order to that end. So that we must distinguish the ordinary imployment of Prophets which was either instruction or prediction of future events among God's own people, from their peculiar messages when they were sent to give evidence to the truth of that way of religion which was then setled by God's own appointment. Now the Prophets generally did suppose the truth of their religion as owned by those they were sent to, and therefore it had been very needless, imploying a power of miracles among them to convince them of that which they believed already. For we never read among all the revolts of the people of the 7ems that they were lapfed so far as totally to rejest the Law of Moses, (which had been, to alter the constitution of their Commonwealth) although they did enormously offend against the Precepts of it, and that in those things wherein the honour of God was mainly concerned, as is most plain in their frequent and gross Idolatry: Which we are not so to understand as though they wholly cast off the worship of the true God, but they superinduced (as the Samaritans did) the worhip of Heathen Idols with that of the God of Ifrael. But when the revolt grew so great and dangerous that it was ready to swallow up the true worship of God, unless some apparent evidence were given of the fallity of those Heathen mixtures, and further confirmation of the truth of the established religion, it pleafed God sometimes to send his Prophers on this peculiar message to the main instruments of this revolt: as is most conspicuous in that dangerous design of Feroboam, when he out of a Politick end fet up his two calves in opposition to the Temple at Ferusalem; and therein it was the more dangerous in that in all probability he designed not the alteration of the worship it self, but the establishment of it in Dan and Bethel. For his inte- 1 King. 12.27. rest lay not in drawing of the people from the worship of God, but from his worship at Ferusalem, which was contrary to his delign of Cantonizing the Kingdom, and taking the greatest share to himself. Now that God might confirm his peoples faith in this dangerous juncture of time, he fends a Prophet to Bethel, who by the working of present miracles there, viz. the renting 1 King. 13. 2. the Altar and withering of Jeroboam's hand, did manifest to them that these Altars were displeasing to God, and that the true place of worship was at Ferusalem. So in that famous fire Ordeal for trying the truth of religion between God and 1 King. 18.38. Baal upon mount Carmel by Elijah, God was pleased in a miraculous way to give the most pregnant testimony to the truth of his own worthip, by causing a fire to come down from heaven and consume the sacrifice, by which the Priests of Baal were confounded and the people confirmed in the belief of the only true God: for presently upon the fight of this miracle the people fall on their faces and say, the Lord he is God, the Lord 1 King. 18. 39. he is God. Whereby we plainly see what clear evidence is given to the truth of that religion which is attested with a power of miracles. Thus the widow of Sarepta which was in the Countrey of Zidon, was brought to believe Elijah to be a true Prophet by his raising up her son to life. And the woman said to 1 King 17.24. Elijah, Now by this I know that thou art a man of God, and that the word of the Lord by thy mouth is truth. So we see how Naaman was convinced of the true God by his miraculous cure 2 King. 5. 15. in Fordan by the appointment of Elisha, Behold now I know that there is no God in all the earth, but in Israel; by which instances it is demonstrable that either the faith of all these persons was built upon weak and insufficient grounds, or that a power of miracles is an evident confirmation of the truth of that religion which is established by them. For this we see was the great B b 2 end

end for which God did imploy any of his Prophets to work miracles, viz. to be as an evident demonstration of the truth of what was revealed by him. So that this power of miracles is not merely a motive of credibility, or a probable inducement to remove prejudice from the person, as many of our Divines speak. but itdoth contain an evident demonstration to common sense of the truth of that religion which is confirmed by them.

Sect. 16.

c. 8. s. I.

And thus we affert it to have been in the case of Moses, the truth of whose message was attested both among the Agyptians and the Israelites by that power of miracles which he had. But herein we have the great Patrons of Muses our greatest enemies, viz. the present Fews; who by reason of their enmity to the doctrine of Christ which was attested by unparallell'd miracles, are grown very thy of the argument drawn from thence: Infomuch that their great Dr. Maimonides lays down this for a confident maxime משרה רבני לא האמינו בו ישראר De fund, legis, מפני האותור : The Israelites did not believe in Moses our Master for the sake of the Miracles which he wrought. they not? the more shame for them: and if they did, the more Shame for this great Rabbi thus to belve them. But the reason he gives for it is, because there may remain some suspicion in ones mind, that all miracles may be wrought by a power of Magick or Incantation: Say ye so? what, when Moses confounded all the Magicians in Egypt, and made themselves who were the most cunning in these things confess it was the finger of God, and at last give out as not able to stand before Moles? might one still suffeet all this to be done by a Magical power? Albo. 1.1. c. 18. Credat Judaus Apella, non ego. This is much like what another of their Doctors fays, whom they call the Divine Philosopher, that Elisha his raising the child to life, and curing Naaman's leprosie; and Daniel's escaping the Lions, and Fonas out of the whale's belly, might all come to pass by the influence of the stars, or by Pythonism. Very probable! but it is most true which G. Vortius there observes of the Fews, nihil non nugacissimi mortalium fingunt ne cogantur agnoscere virtute ac digito quasi ipsius Der Fesum nostrum effecisse miracula (ua. All their design in this is, only to elevate the miracles of our bleffed Saviour, and to derogate all they can from the belief of them. Hence they tell us that, nothing is so easie to be done as miracles; the mere recital of the Tetragrammaton will

work wonders, and that by this Feremiah and our Saviour did all their miracles: It is well yet that he did no more than one of their own Prophets had done before him; but where I wonder do we read that ever the pronouncing of four letters raised one from the dead who had lain four days in the grave? or by what power did Christ raise himself from the dead; (which was the greatest miracle of all) could his dead body pronounce the Tetragrammaton to awaken its felf with? But Maimonides further tells us, that the miracles which Moses wrought among the Israelites were merely for necessity, and not to prove the truth of his Divine commission, for which he instanceth in dividing the red sea, the raining of Manna, and the destruction of Corah and his complices. But setting aside that these two latter were the immediate hand of God, and not miracles done by Moses, yet it is evident that the intent of them was to manifest a Divine presence among them: and in the t: yal of Corah Moses appeals to God's immediate Providence to manifest whether God had immediately imployed him or no. For it is evident by the text that the main charge they laid against Moses was ambition and usurpation; Numb. 16. 13. Is it a small thing, say they, that thou hast brought us up out of a Land that floweth with milk and honey, to kill us in the wilderness, except thou make thy self altogether a Prince over us? Whereby it is evident they thought that Moses acted out of a private design, and aimed at his own honour and authority; which was an imputation of the highest nature that could be alledged against him. Now see how Moses proceeds to clear himfelf, (which is fufficient to stop the mouths of these incredulous Fews) for he lays the greatest evidence of his Divine commission upon a present miracle. And Moses said, Hereby shall V. 28, 29. ye know that the Lord hath sent me to do all these works; for I have not done them of mine own mind; If these men die the common death of all men, then the Lord hath not sent me, &c. Can any thing be more plain than that the only intent of this miracle was to make it appear that Moses took not his office. upon him, but was immediately fent and imployed by God in what he did. But that which will put an end to this controversie is God's giving Moses a power to work miracles for that very end that the Israelites should believe him, Exodus, 8. 8, 9. And can we think they would have ever left Agypt

as they did and followed Moses into the wilderness, unless they had been fully convinced he was a deliverer fent from God? It is true (that which the Fews speak so much of) the statio in monte Sina was a great confirmation both to their own faith and to Meses his, according to what God had told him, Exod. 2.12. but yet it follows not hence they had no firm bottom for their faith to stand on before (for then they might have been drowned in the red sea as well as the Ægyptians) but God knowing their incredulity and readiness to disobey his Law. did at the promulgation of it testifie to their eyes and ears his own presence in the midst of them. And this certainly was one of the greatest miracles of all: and therefore to oppose this to the evidence that is produced by miracles is only to oppose a power of working miracles to a power of doing them. So vain and empty then, so false and fallacious, yea so directly contrary to holy Scripture is that Axiome of the Fews, Prophetiæ veritas non confirmatur miraculis: for miracles are sufficient evidences of Divine revelation in any whom God. imploys, to all but fuch as are refolved not to believe them; and as one well faith, Pertinaciæ nullum remedium posuit Deus; God never works miracles to convince obstinate Atheists and wilful Infidels. This now is the first case wherein miracles are to be expected, which is, when God imploys any upon an extraordinary message, to be as Credentials to confirm their Divine commission.

Exod. 19. 9.

CHAP. VII.

The eternity of the Law of Moses discussed.

The second case wherein miracles may be expected, when a Divine positive Law is to be repealed, and another way of wor-This established instead of it. The possibility in general of a repeal of a Divine Law afferted; the particular case of the Law of Moses disputed against the fews: the matter of that Law proved not to be immutably obligatory; because the ceremonial precepts were required not for themselves, but for some further end; that proved from Maimonides his confession: the precepts of the Ceremonial Law frequently dispensed with while the Law was in force. Of the passover of Hezekiah, and several other instances. It is not inconsistent with the wisdom of God to repeal such an established Law. Abravanel's arguments answered. Of the perfection of the Law of Moses, compared with the Gospel. Whether God bath ever declared be would never repeal the Law of Moss. Of adding to the precepts. Of the expressions seeming to imply the perpetuity of the Law of Moses. Reasons assigned why those expressions are used, though perpetuity be not implyed. The Law of Moses not built upon immutable reason, because many particular precepts were founded upon particular occasions, as the customs of the Zabii; many ceremonial precepts thence deduced out of Maimonides; and because such a state of things was foretold, with which the observation of the Ceremonial Law would be inconsistent. That largely discovered from the Prophecies of the old Testament.

Now come to the second case wherein miracles may be Sect. 1. justly expected, which is, when something which hath been before established by Divine Law, is to be repealed, and some other way of worship to be set up instead of it. Two things are very necessary to be spoken to for the clearing of this propisition; first, whether a Law once established by God himself be capable of a repeal; Secondly, What necessity there is of miracles to manifest God's intention of repealing a former Law. These two contain the main soundation of the dispute between

the Fews and us, viz. whether the Law of Moses was ever to be laid aside, and whether the miracles of our blessed Saviour were sufficient evidences of God's intention by him to repeal the former Law established by Moses? I begin with the first, whether a Divine Law in general or the Law of Moses in particular may be abrogated or repealed, after God himself hath made it evident that the promulgation of it was from himself. This must be confessed the strongest and most plausible plea the prefent Fews have for their Infidelity, and therefore the eternity. of the Law of Moses is made by them one of the fundamental articles of their present Creed, and is pleaded for with the greatest subtilty by their great R. Abravanel, who spends his whole 12 Chapter de capite fidei upon it, but with what succefs, will be feen in our clearing of it. There are but three things can be supposed as the grounds why a Law once promulged by God himself, should not be capable of repeal; and those are either first, because the things themselves commanded in that Law are of such a nature, that they are not capable of being dispensed with: Or secondly, that it is not consistent with the wisdom of God to repeal a Law once established: Or thirdly, that the reason of the Law continuing always the same, it would argue mutability in God to revoke that Law, and establish another instead of it: If we can therefore demonstrate, that the matter of the Law of Moses is of a positive and mutable nature, that it is suitable to the wisdom of God to alter it, and that sufficient account in reason may be given for the alteration of it. Then there can be no imaginable necessity that a Law once having God for its Author, must therefore derive from him an eternal and immutable obligation.

First then as to the matter of the Law; and here it must be supposed, that in the matter of controversie between us and the fews, the question is not of any of those things which are therefore commanded, because they are intrinsecally good, as the precepts of the natural or moral Law; but of those things which are therefore only good, because God commands them, i.e. things merely positive, whose worth and value ariseth not from the intrinsick weight of the things, but from the external impress of divine authority upon them. Now it is no question on either hand whether God may require these things or no; nor whether these things will be acceptable unto God, so

long

Sect. 2.

I.

long as he requires them; but whether, when once required, the obligation to them can never cease. Such kind of things among the Fews we suppose all the rites and ceremonies of the Law to be; viz. circumcision, distinction of meats and days, customs of sacrificing, and such like, and whatever other Laws respected them as a distinct and peculiar Common-wealth. All these we say are such as do not carry an immutable obligation along with them; and that on these accounts.

First, Because these things are not primarily required for themselves, but in order to some further end. Things that are required upon their own account, carry an indispensable obligation in them to their performance; but where things are commanded not for themselves, but the Legislator doth express some particular grounds of requiring them, there the end and intention of the Legislator is the measure of their obligation. To which purpose Maimonides excellently speaks, when he faith, That More Nevoch, the particular manner of worship among the Jews, as sacrifices and p. 3. c. 32. oblations, were secundum intentionem secundam Dei, God's secundary intention and design; but prayer, invocation, and the like, were nearer God's primary intention: Now, faith he, for the first, they are no further acceptable to God, than as all the circumstances of time, place, and persons are observed, which are prescribed by God himself; but the latter are acceptable in any person, time, or place. And for this cause, saith he, it is that we find the Prophets often reproving men for their too great sedulity in bringing oblations, and inculcating this to them, that God did not intend these as the principal instances of his worship, and that God did not need any of these things. So I Sam. 15. 22. Behold to obey is better than (acrifice, and to bearken, than the fat of rams: Isa. I. II. To what purpose is the multitude of your (acrifices unto me? laith the Lord. And especially Ferem. 7. 22, 23. For I spake not to your Fathers, nor commanded them in the day that I brought them forth out of the land of Agypt, concerning burnt-offerings; but this thing I commanded them, saying, Obey my voice, and I will be your God, and ye shall be my people. Of which words Marmonides faith, Scrupulum moverunt omnibus, quos mibi videre aut audire contigit; For fay they, How can it be that God did not command them concerning facrifices, when a great part of the Law is about them: But Maimonides well resolves the doubt thus, That God's primary intention, and that which

have

he chiefly looked at, was obedience; but God's intention in facrifices and oblations, was only to teach them the chief thing, which was obedience. This then is of the number of those things which are spoken absolutely, but to be understood comparatively, as, I will have mercy and not facrifice. My doctrine is not mine, but his that fent me. It is not you that speak, but the Holy Ghost, &c. So that we see all the goodness which is in these things, is conveyed into them by that which is morally good, which is obedience; and God did never regard the performance of those Lazus any further than as it was an expresfion of obedience, and it was conjoyned with those other moral duties which were most agreeable to the Divine nature. And in this fence many understood that difficult place, Ezek. 20.25. And I gave them שובים distutes that were not good. i e. fay they, comparatively with these things which were simply and in themselves good; to which purpose they give this rule, Aliquid negatur inesse alicui, quod alterius comparatione existimatur exiguum. But I rather think that which the Chaldee Paraphrast suggests, and others explain further, to be the meaning of that place, viz. that by the precepts that were not good, is meant the cruel and tyrannical impositions of those enemies God for their fins did deliver them over to, which were far from being acceptable to them, which is frequently the sence of good in Scripture. Thus we see one reason why the ceremonial precepts do not in themselves imply an immutable obligation, because they are not commanded for themselves, but in order to a further end.

Sect. 3.

Exod. 29. 33.

Because God hath frequently dispensed with the ceremonial precepts when they were in greatest force, if the end of them could be attained without them. Thus the precept of circumcision slept during the Israelites travels in the wilderness. Thus David ate of the shew-bread, which is express forbidden in the Law; the fews think to evade this by distinguishing between the bread of confession in the Eucharistical offering mentioned Leviticus 7. 12. and the proper shew-bread: Now they say David eat only of the first, and not of the second; but this is gloss Aurelianensis, which overthrows the Text; for it is expressly said, that the ground why the Priest gave him boly bread, was because there was none there but in the substantial the shew-bread, 1 Sam. 21. 6. A like violation of the Law without reproof, is commonly supposed by the fews to

have been in the fiege of Fericho, viz. in the case of the Sabbath. But it is more plain in that Anamalous Paffover observed by Hezekiah, which many of the Fews themselves acknowledge was not observed as the second Passover provided by the Law to be celebrated on the 14 day of the second month by those who were debarred of the first for their legal uncleannes; but Numb. 9. 11. they suppose it to have been intended for the legal Passover; only because the fourteenth of Nisan was passed before the sanctification of the Temple was finished, lest they should 2 Chron. 29. celebrate none at all that year, they tell us that Hezekiah with the consent of the Rulers, did make an Intercalation that year of a whole month, and so Nisan was reckoned for the second Adar, and Fiar for Nisan, from whence they say that Heze- V. Selden. de kiah did intercalate Nisan in Nisan, that is, added another Anno civili Nisan to the first. But where do we read any fuch thing per- Jud. cap. 9. mitted in the Law as the celebrating the first Passover the 14th of the second month? But granting that it was observed as a second Passover, because of the want of legal sanctification both in Priests and People; yet we find great irregularities in the observation of it; for it is exprelly said, That a multitude 2 Chron. 30. of the people had not cleansed themselves, yet they did eat the Passover otherwise than it was written. And yet it is said upon Hezekiah's prayer, that the Lord hearkened to Hezekiah, and healed every one. So that we fee God himself did dispense with the strict ceremonial precepts of the Law, where men did look after the main and substantial parts of the worship God required from them. Nay God himself hath expresly declared his own will to dispense with the ritual and ceremonial Law, where it comes to stand in competition with such things as have an internal goodness in them, when he faith, he dest- Hos 6 6. red mercy and not sacrifice, and the knowledge of God more than burnt-offerings. Thus we plainly see that the ceremonial Law, however positive it was, did yield as to its obligation, when any thing that was moral, flood in competition with it. And fo the Jews themselves suppose an open violation of the judicial Law to have been in the hanging up of Saul's fons, a long time together, directly contrary to Deut. 21. 23. which they conceive to have been from the 16 of Nisan to the 17 of Marchesvan, which is as much as from our March to Sep- 2 Sam. 21. 9, tember, whereas the Law faith expresly that the body of one Cc 2

196

Not. in Abrav.

that is hanged shall not remain all night upon the tree, but thou shalt in any wise bury him that day. One of the fewish Rabbies, as G. Verstus tells us, is so troubled at this, that he wisheth that place in Samuel expunged out of Scripture, that the name of God might be sanctified. But whether this were done name of God might be sanctified. But whether this were done not by the command of the Oracle or no, or whether only by a general permission, we see it was acceptable unto God; for upon that the Gibeonites samine was removed, and God was intreated for the Land. Thus we have now proved that there is no immutable and indispensable obligation which ariseth from the things themselves.

Sect. 4

Rosh Amanana.

Secondly, It is no way inconfiftent with the wisdom of God to repeal fuch a Law when once established. The main argument of that learned R. Abravanel, whereby he would establish the eternity of the Law of Moses, is setched from hence, That this Law was the result of the wildom of God, who knows the suitableness of things he appoints to the ends he appoints them for; as God bath appointed bread to be the food of mans body: Now we are not to enquire why God bath appointed bread and no other thing to be the food of man; no more, faith he, are we to enquire why God bath appointed this Law rather than another for the food of our souls; but we are to rest contented with the counsels of God, though we understand not the reasons. of them. This is the substance of that argument, which he more largely deduceth. To which we answer, that his argument holds good for obedience to all God's positive precepts of what kind or nature foever they be, fo long as we know their obligation to continue; but all the question is, whether every positive precept must always continue to oblige. And thus far his similitade will hold good, that whatever God doth command, we are to look upon it to be as necessary to our souls, as bread to our bodies; but hence it follows not that our fouls must be always held to the same positive precepts, any more than our bodies to the same kind of food. Nay, as in our bodies we find. fome kind of food always necessary, but the kind of it to alter according to age, health, and constitutions; so we say some kind of Divine revelation is always necessary; but God is graciously pleased to temper it according to the age and growth of his people; so he fed them as with milk in their nonage, with a ritual and ceremonial Law, and trained them up

by degrees under the Nursery of the Prophets' till the Church was grown to age, and then God fed it with the strong meat which is contained in God's revelation of his will by the Gospel of his Son. And therein was abundantly feen God's monumoining orgin, his variegated wisdom, that he made choice of such excellent and proportionable ways to his peoples capacity to prepare them gradually for that full and compleat revelation which was reserved for the time of the appearance of the true Messias in the world. For can any thing be more plain than the gradual progress of Divine revelation from the beginning of the world? That fair resemblance and portraisture of God himself, and his will upon his word (if I may so express it) had its groundwork laid upon man's first Apostasie, in the promise made Gen. 3. 15. whereon some further lines were drawn in the times of the Patriarchs, but it had its omazegoia, it was shadowed out the most in the typical and ceremonial Law, but was never filled up to the life, nor had its perfect Zwoyegoia, 'till the Son of God himself appeared unto the world. If then it be inconsistent with the wisdom of God to add any thing to the Law of Moses, why not to the revelation made to Adam or the Patriarchs? or especially to the seven precepts of Noah, which they suppose to have been given to all mankind after the flood? If it were not repugnant to the wisdom of God to superadd rituals and ceremonials to morals and naturals, why shall it be to take down the Scaffolds of Ceremonies, when God's spiritual Temple the Church of God is come to its full height? Is there not more reason that rituals should give place to substantials, than that such should be super-induced to morals?

There are only two things can be pleaded by the Jews why it should be more repugnant to the wisdom of God to add to the Law of Moses, than to any former revelation, which are the greater perfection they suppose to be in this revelation above others, and that God in the promulgation of it did express. that he would never alter it. But both these are manifestly defective and insufficient in order to the end for which they are produced. For first, what evidence is there that the Law of Moses contained so great perfection in it, as that it was not capable of having any additions made to it by God himfelf? We speak not now of the perfection of the Moral Law, which it is granted contained in it the foundation of all positive precepts; Psal. 19. 10.

Sect. 5

for

for this we never contend for the abrogation of, but the ritual Law is that we meddle with; and is it possible any men should be so little befriended by reason as to think this to be the utmost pitch of what God could reveal to the world as to the way of his own worship? Let any indifferent rational person take the precepts of the Goffel, and lay them in the balance with those of the Ceremonial Law, and if he makes any scruple of deciding on which fide the over-weight lies, we may have cause to suspect him forsaken of that little reason which gave him the name of man. Let but the fifth of Matthew be laid against the whole book of Levitiens, and then see whether contains the more excellent precepts, and more suitable to the Diving nature? I speak not this to disparage any thing which had once God for the Author of it, but to let us fee how far God was from the necessity of natural agents to act to the height of his frength in that discovery of his will. God is wife as well as righteous in all his mays; as he can command nothing but what was just; so he will command nothing but what is good, nay excellent in its kind. But though all the Stars be in the same firmament, yet one star differs from another in glory; though they may be all pearls, yet some may be more orient than others are; every place of holy Scripture may have its crown, but some may have their aureola, a greater excellency, a fuller and larger capacity than the other hath; every parcel of Divine revelation may have some persection in its kind, yet there may be some monstra perfectionis in Scaliger's expression, that may far out-vye the glory and excellency of the rest. Can we think the mists and umbrages of the Law could ever cast so glorious a light as the Sun of righteousness himself in his Meridian elevation? As well may we think a dark shady passage more magnificent and glorious than the most Princely Palace, a picture drawn in Charcoal more exquisite and curious than the lines of Apelles, some imperfect rudiments more exact and accurate than the most elaborate work, as go about to compare the Law of Moses with the Gospel of Tesus Christ in point of excellency and perfection. Let the Jews then boast never so much of their gradus Mosaicus, and how much it exceeds the degree of revelation in other Prophets, we know if his light be compared with what the Goffel communicates, Moses himself saw but as in a glass darkly, and not in speculo lucido.

lucido, as the Jews' are wont to speak. We honour Moses much, but we have learnt to honour him at whose transfignration he was present more; neither can that be thought any disparagement to him who accounted the reproach of Christ

greater riches than the treasures of Agypt.

But it may be, though the Law in its felf be not so absolutely perfect, yet God may have declared he will never alter it, and then it is not confiftent with Divine wisdom to repeal it. Very true: God will never alter what he hath faid he will not; but where is it that he hath thus bound up himfelf? Is it in that noted place to this purpose, Thou shalt not add thereto nor Deut. 12. 32. diminish from it? So indeed Maimonides argues; but therein De fund leg.c.q. more like a Jew than himself; and yet one of his own Nation s. 1. 1kkarim. therein far more ingenuous than he, gives a most sufficient an- 1.3. c. 14. fwer to it, which is R. Fof. Albo, whose words are thus produced by Vorstius and others; the Scripture only admonisheth us, that we (hould not add to nor diminish from God's commands according to our own wills; but what hinders, faith he but God himself may according to his own wisdom add or diminish what he pleaseth? But are they in good earnest when they fay God bound up himself by this speech? whence came then all the Prophetical revelations among the Jews? did these add nothing to the Law of Moses, which was as much the mill of God when revealed by them, as any thing was revealed by Moses himself? or will they say that all those things were contained for the substance in the Law of Moses, as to what concerned Practice? Very true; but not in the Ceremonial, but the Moral Law; and fo we shall not slick to grant that the whole duty of man may be reduced to that. But if adding to the precepts be the doing of God's commands in another way than be bath prescribed, and diminishing from them be merely not to do what God bath commanded, as some conceive, then these words are still more remote from the sence assixed on them by the incredulous fews. For why may not God himself add to his own Laws or alter the form of them, although we are always bound directly to follow God's declared will? May not God enlarge his own will, and bring his Scholars from the rudiments of their nonage to the higher knowledge of those who are full-grown? or must the world of necessity do that which the old Roman so much abhorred, senescere in elementis, wax

Sett. 6.

gray in learning this A, B, C? or was the Ceremonial Law like the China Characters, that the world might spend its age in conning of them? But it appears that there was no other meaning in that strict prohibition, than that men should not of their own heads offer to find out new ways of worship as Feroboam did, but that God's revelation of his own will in all its different degrees was to be the adequate rule of the way and parts of his own worship. And I would fain know of the Jews whether their own severe and strict probibitions of things not at all forbidden in the Law of God, and that on a religious account, as סייג לתורה a boundary to the Law, come not nearer the adding to God's Law, than God's own further declaration of his will doth? All the dispute then must be, not whether God may add to his own Law, but whether the Gospel be a prohibited addition to the Law of Moses, that is, whether it be only the invention of men, or it be the express declaration of the will of God? As to which controversie, he is no true Christian who dare not readily joyn issue with them, and undertake to prove by all the arguments by which they believe the Law of Moses to have been of Divine revelation, that the Gospel of Christ is a clear manifestation of the Will of God. But of that afterwards.

Sect. 7.

Concil. in Levit. 9. 7.

From hence it is evident that God hath not by this place tied up himself from any further manifestation of his mind beyond the Law of Moles; but it may be they may put greater confidence in those expressions which seem necessarily to imply a perpetual and unalterable obligation in the Law of Moles; For, faith the late learned Rabbi Manasse Ben Israel, If by fuch expressions as those are used in Scripture which seem to import the perpetuity of the Law of Moses, somewhat else should be meant than they seem to expres; what did Moses and the Prophets in using them but lay a stumbling-block in the ways of men, whereas they might have spoken clearly and told us there should a time come when the Ceremonial Law should oblige no longer? This being a charge of fo high a nature, must not be dismissed without a particular enquiry into the expressions which are the ground and reason of it. The places most in. fifted on by the Jews, are Deut. 29. 29. Things which are revealed belong to us and to our children or yer. So Levit. 23. 14. the precept of offering the first fruits is there called

" talled with a flatute for ever; and that of the Passover, Exod. 12.17. where the fame expression is used. From hence they inferr that no alteration can happen as to the Ceremonial Law, fince God himself hath declared that it shall continue for ever. To this common argument of the Jews, it is in general replied, That the word in which the main force of the argument lies, doth not carry with it an absolute perpetuity. but it fignifies according to the subject it is joyned with. So when it is applied to God, it fignifies Eternity, not fo much from the mere importance of the word, as from the necessary existence of the Divine nature. Thence Maimonides himself can fay, Proinde sciendum est quod Olam non necessario significet More Nevoch. aternitatem, nisi ei conjungatur Ed (vel vel) idque vel post p. 2. c. 28. illud ut Olam vaed, vel ante Ad Olam. Although this rule of his hath no certainty at all in it, as appears from his collection of it, which is because it is said, Psal. 10. 16. The Lord he is King Olam vaed, for ever and ever: but as I faid already, that is not from the fignification of the word, but the nature of the thing. And it is most plain in Scripture that יול is fo far from implying a necessary perpetuity, that it is applied to fuch things as can have no long duration, as Exod. 21. 6. and he shall serve him לעולם, that is, (as the Jews themselves expound it) to the next Jubilee, though it were near or far off. So I Sam. 1. 22. where Samuel is faid to abide before the Lord ער עול for ever, where we find Maimonides his Ad Olam in a fence very far short of Eternity; this is so plain that the formerly cited R. Foseph Albo doth in terms confess it, and produceth a multitude of other places to the same purpose. For which though he be fufficiently censured by his Brethren, vet we may fee there may be some ingenuity left in a 7ewish Rabbi, even in the grand dispute concerning the Eternity of the Law of Moses.

All the difficulty now is to assign some rational accounts why such precepts which God did not intend should be always obligatory, yet should be enforced upon them in such expressions which may seem at least to imply a perpetuity. Of which these may be given. First, That these precepts to which these expressions are annexed, should not be looked on as mere ambulatory Laws that did only concern them in their travels through the wilderness, and not continue obligatory when they were settled in

Sect. 8.

Canaan.

Canaan. For which purpose we are to observe, That though all the Laws were given in one body in the wilderness, yet the obligation to all of them did not commence at the same time, neither were they to continue for the same duration; these three forts of precepts may be observed among them; first such as concerned them only in their present condition, as that about the Tabernacle, which was then a moveable Temple among them, fuitable to their condition; but when they were fetled. God was to have a fetled house too. So that precept of going without the camp, Deut. 23. 12. had an immediate respect to their peregrination. Secondly, Such precepts as were given them, but they were not bound to perform them 'till their settlement in Canaan, as driving out the Canaanites, Numb. 33.52. building the Temple in the place which God should choose, erecting judicatories in their several Cities, choosing a King, &c. Thirdly, There were fuch precepts as concern them where ever they were, whether in the Wilderness or in Canaan; now these are the precepts which are faid to be perpetual. This is the ac-De Verit. Rel. count given of it by H. Grotius; but because this may be liable to some exceptions, I therefore add, Secondly, That the reason of those expressions being annexed to the precepts of the Ceremonial Law, is, because they were to continue obligatory 'till such a remarkable period of time came which should alter the state of things among them. And such a period of time the coming of the Messias is by themselves supposed to be, when in their famous computation they make three Epocha's, before the Law, under the Law, and the coming of the Messias. And it is evident yet by them, that they do still expect a wonderfull alteration of the State of things when the Messias comes; doth it not therefore stand to reason that Thould be added to fuch things which were to continue 'till fo great an alteration as should be on the coming of the Messias, especially if the coming of the Messias had been deferred so long as they falfly suppose it to be? But however, granting that a new feries of times or alay is to commence from the Messias, there is very great reason why that expression should be added to those things which were to continue as long as the aiw did, i.e. 'till Messias came, which we freely acknowledge. And in this sence is great often taken for such a duration of things which had some remarkable period to conclude it, as in the case

Christ. 1.5. S.7.

case of the Jubilee, in the servant mentioned, and the special employment which God called Samuel to, in this case, as to the event, or the end of his life in Hannah's designation, when she faid he should attend upon the Lord for ever. Thirdly, These precepts are faid to endure for ever, which would still have continued obligatory, unless God himself had altered the obligation of them, by a new revelation of his will. For in this case it is most certain that all positive precepts coming immediately from God, do carry with them an unalterable obligation, unless the Legislator himself do in as evident a way repeal them as he did once establish them; that is, in such Laws which depend merely upon God's positive and arbitrary will. For in this case God allows none to alter any thing concerning his Law; but indispensable obedience is our duty 'till God himself repeal his former Laws. And this we affert to be the case in the Gospel. So that it appears plainly that it implies nothing inconsistent with the wisdom of God to repeal an established positive Law, though some expressions to prejudiced minds seem to imply a

perpetuity in it.

We come therefore to the third thing which may make a positive Law unalterable, which is, when the reason of it is immutable; for then, fay they, it would argue mutability in God to repeal it. If we can therefore make it evident that the Ceremonial Law was not established on an immutable reason, and that the reason on which it was established doth suppose a state of things to come, in which it should expire, then there cannot be the least pretence of mutability in God on the repeal of fuch a Law. First, That it was not established upon an immutable reason: The immutable reason of a Law must either be fetched from the nature of the things commanded, or the grounds of the establishing of it; we have already proved that the nature of the positive precepts of the Ceremonial Law do not carry in them an intrinfecal goodness. And here the Sophistry of the fews is apparently discovered, that when they are preffed with this, they take fanctuary in the Decalogue, or some spiritual precepts, which comprehend in them the general foundation of the Law, as, Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy beart, &c. whereas these are very remote from the matter in controverse, which concerns not what precepts were moral in their Law, but what were purely ceremonial; which were

Sect. 9.

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More Newoch. 1. 3. cap. 29.

so far from being founded on an immutable reason, that the particular occasions of the giving of many of them, is particularly affigned by their own Writers; especially in the main parts of the ceremonial worship of God among them, the reasons of which Maimonides saith may be deduced from the customs of the Zabailts, the knowledge of whose opinions and customs, he tells us, is porta magna ad reddendas præceptorum causas, gives much light to the Law of Moses; and particularly of himself he saith, Suid multarum legum rationes & cause mihi innotuerint ex engnitione fidei, rituum & cultus Zabiorum; that he came to the right understanding of many of the Laws of Moses by his knowledge in the rites and customs of these Zabaists. Granting therefore the hypothesis of this learned Rabbi, that the precepts of the Law had most of them a particular respect to the Idolatrous customs of these people; what will hence follow but only this, That the reason of the ceremonial precepts did respect the customs in use when they were given, and so are not founded upon an immutable reason? And the more the precepts are whose reason is to be setched from hence, the more plain and evident is the thing we intended by it, viz. that the Ceremonial Law is not founded upon an unalterable reason.

Sect. 10.

de Idol. c. 12.

Phaleg. 1. 4. cap. 8.

Now from this one head of the Idolatrous customs of those Nations about them hath that learned Authour deduced the reasons of very many of the most obscure commands of the Cere-Levit. 19. 27. monial Law: As that concerning rounding the corners of their V. Voff in Maim. heads, which Herodotus tells us was the custom of the Arabians, and others of the Babylonian Priests; by both which the Zabii may be meant, the superstition of the Zabii being Chaldean, as I have shewed already, and their name, as some conceive, from Saba the Son of Chus, whose posterity were seated in Arabia, near to the red Sea; and that which confirms this opinion, is, that the Sabeans did, as Philostorgius faith, worship the Sun and Moon, as the Zabaists did in Maimonides; and withall Bochartus makes it evident from Strabo, that some of the Babylonians called Gerrhæi, possessed themselves of the Country of the Sabeans, whereby this originally Chaldaick fuperstition might spread its self in these parts near the confines of Judaa, which might be the cause why all those rites which were used by these Idolatrous people, are so severely forbidden to the Jews: God thereby fetting up a wall of separation between his people and the Nations round about them, by making the customs of the Jews almost Antipodes to theirs; as those of 7apan are to them of China. Upon the same ground it is supposed that other precept was made against wearing a garment of Lev. 19.19. linen and woolien, because the Idolatrous Priests used to go so cloathed, as Maimonides tells us out of their books, and likewife More Nevoch. that prohibition of a moman's wearing the arms of a man, and a 1.3. c. 37. man's wearing the garments of a woman, is very probably fup- Deut. 22. 5. posed to have had its original from that Idolatrons custom mentioned by the same Authour, Ut vir gestet Vestimentum muliebre V. Selden de coloratum quando stat coram stella Veneris; similiter ut mulier in-Diis Syris, synt duat loricam & arma bellica quando stat coram stella Martis; but 2. cap. 4. that Authour doth not deny a further reason to be couched in it for the preservation of publick honesty. Many other precepts are drawn from the same fountain by that same Authour, as the fowing of divers feeds in the same ground; the forbidding the Lev. 19. 19. eating of the fruit of their trees for the first three years after they Lev. 19. 23. came to Canaan; that being the furthest time wherein the trees of their own plantation would begin to bear in that Country. Now it was the custom of all those Idolatrous people, that the first time any tree did bear, part of the fruit was to be burnt up in an offering to the Idol, and the other part eaten in the Idol-Temple; or else they supposed their trees would never prosper: Now in opposition to this, God bids them bring the fruit of the fourth year to him, and eat of the fifth themselves, that it may Lev. 19.24,25. yield unto you the increase thereof. So the Idolaters threatned all parents that their children would never live, unless they caused them to pass through the fire; from which custom Maimonides faith, some even in his time would take the children that were new born, and move them up and down over a fire wherein odoriferous smells were cast: Thence comes that strict prohibition of giving the children to Moloch, which was by that custom of passing Lev. 20. 2,3. through the fire. To this same Head, the same Authour refers Gen. 9. 4. that of not eating the member of a living creature, which we render flesh with the life thereof; which was forbidden, as he elsewhere tells us, not only for avoiding cruelty, but because the Heathen Nations were wont in their Idolatrous Feasts to take a More Nevocia. member off from a living creature, and eat it afterwards; and P. 3. c. 48. in them likewise he supposeth they used the boiling the flesh and the milk together, which, faith he, besides that it affords a molt

Exod. 23. 17. 19. 34. 26.

Lev. 20. 23. 1. Celsum, 1.4.

a most gross nourishment, savours of their Idolatrous practices too; and therefore, faith he, it is observable that twice where this precept is mentioned, it follows that of the solemn appearance of the Males at Jerusalem thrice a year, whereby it seems to be implied that this action had relation to some great solemnity. These and several other precepts of the Law of Moses are deduced by that very learned Rabbi from Idolatrous customs, as the occasions of them; which feem to have the more reason in them, because that God did in the general so strictly forbid the Jews to walk after the custom of the Nations about them. Thence Origen takes notice of the to Equilor & voper, if the istotegoror nat αὐτες πολημίαν; for which he faith, they were διαβεβλημβίοι, reproached by the Heathens, because their Laws and Polity were so different from the custom of other Nations. Thus we see then that many precepts of the Ceremonial Law were founded, neither on the goodness of the things themselves, nor on any unalterable reason, but were enforced on a peculiar reason on the people of the Jews at that time, as they were a people separated from the rest of the world for the worship of the true God. And for the other great offices wherein their Religion did fo much confift, viz. Sacrifices, distinction of meats, observation of Festivals, circumcifion, and fuch like; The particular account and reason of them is either evident in the Law its felf, or fully acknowledged by their own Writers, that it is here superfluous to insist on De verit, Rel. them: Especially since so many have done that so largely al-Christiana, 1.5. ready (particularly Grotius) whose Labours I intend not to

Sect. II.

transcribe. I come therefore to the fecond thing; which is, That the Ceremonial Law was so far from being founded on an immutable reason, that while it was in its greatest force such a state of things was plainly foretold, with which the observation of that Law would be inconfistent. For which we are to consider, that though the Law of Moses seemed outwardly to respect the temporal advantages of the people embracing it in the Land of Canaan; yet there was a Spring of Spiritual Promises whose head was higher than Jordan was, that ran down from the Patriarchs, and was more fully opened to some of them, which though it seemed to run under ground in the midst of the Ceremonial observations of the Law; yet it frequently brake forth and opened its felf in the midst of them, and by degrees

in the Prophetical Age did make its felf a larger Channel, 'till in the time of the Messias by its force and violence it overthrew those banks which stood in the way of it, and overforead the face of the whole earth. It is evident by the whole series of the Scripture of the Old Testament, that God's ultimate intention was not to confine the faving knowledge of his will only to the Jews; for the great promise to Abraham was. That in his feed all the nations of the earth should be blessed; And as Abraham rejoyced to see that day afar off; so good Facob, when he leaned on his Facob's staff, took the height of that day-star from on high, which though like some of the fixed ftars, might not for some time be visible to the inferior world; yet he foretold the time when he should descend into a lower orb, and become conspicuous in our Horizon. And confequently to his appearance in the world, would be the drawing not fo much the eyes as the bearts of the world to him; for no fooner is it mentioned that Shiloh comes when the Scepter departs from Judah; but it imme- Gen. 49. 10. diately follows, And to him shall the gathering of the people be. Thus we see before ever the Law of Moses came to inclose the people of the Fews as God's peculiar people, there was a design on foot, for inlarging the bounds of God's inheritance, and making the uttermost parts of the earth his Son's possession. Can we then think that the Law which came afterwards, could difanull the Covenant made 430 years before, as the Apostle excellently reasons? Can we believe the Mosai- Gal. 4. 17. cal dispensation was the utm st of what God did intend, when God had before promised that the blessing of Abraham should come upon us Gentiles also? To which purpose it is very observable, that Abraham was justified not in circumcision, but in uncircumcision; for he received the sign of circumcision, a Rom.4.10,11. seal of the righteousness of faith, being uncircumcifed, that he might be the Father of all them that believe, though they be not circumcifed; that righteousness might be imputed unto them alfo. Whereby it is evident that the great bleffings promifed to Abraham, did not respect him merely as Progenitor of the Israelites, but in a higher capacity, as Father of the faithfull; and that the ground of his acceptance with God did not depend on any Ceremonial Rite, such as circumcision was, God imputing his faith for righteousness before his be-

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ing circumcifed. But because the time was not vet come wherein the grand mystery of man's salvation by the death of the Son of God was to be revealed; therefore when God called the Nation of the Fews from their bondage, he made choice of a more obscure way of representing this mystery to them through all the umbrages of the Law: And withall inforced his precepts with such terrible sanctions of curses to all that continued not in all that was written in that Law to do it, to make them the more apprehensive that the ground of their acceptance with God, could not be the performance of the precepts of that Law, but they ought to breathe after that higher dispensation wherein the way and method of man's salvation should be fully revealed when the fulness of time was come. Now therefore God left them under the Tutorage and Padagogy of the Law, which spake so severely. to them, that they might not think this was all God intended in order to the happiness of men, but that he did reserve some greater thing in store to be enjoyed by his people when they were come to age.

Seit. 12.

So that though the Ceremonies of the Law had not a mouth to speak out Christ; yet they had a hand to point to him; for they were the hadow or dark representation of that which was to be drawn afterwards to the greatest life. And this was understood by all those whose hearts were carried beyond the outward, sapless Letter of the Law, to the more inward and spiritual meaning of it, (there being an elow reene & Exwritiona in the Law as well as Philosophy,) and these mysteries were too not so veiled and hidden, but all that were enimous, fully initiated, might fully understand them; which made up that true spiritual Cabala, which was constantly preserved among the true Israelites, which was more largely commented on by the Prophets of succeeding Ages; whose care it was to unlock this Cabala, and to raise up the hearts of the people in a higher expectation of the great things which were to come. Thence we not only read of the solemn prayer of the Church of the Fews, that the knowledge of God might be dispersed over all the Nations of the earth, but we have many prophecies that when the mountain of the Lord's house should be exalted, all nations (hould flow unto it: that from the rising of the Sun to the going down thereof, God's name shall be great among the Gentiles,

Pfal. 67. 2.

Ifaiah 2. 2.

Mal. r. II.

and in every place incense should be offered to his name, and a pure offering; for his name shall be great among the Heathen. That the Inscription on the High-priest's forehead, Holines to the Lord, should by reason of the large diffusion of a Spirit of Holiness in the days of the Gospel, be set upon the bells of Hor- Zach, 14, 20. les, and that the pots in the Lord's bouse should be as bowls before the Altar, i. e. that when the Levitical service should be laid aside, and that Holiness which was that appropriated to the Priests and Instruments of the Temple, should be discerned in those things which seemed most remote from it. That a Priesthood after another order than that of Aaron should be Psal. 110. 4,5, established, viz. after the order of Melchisedeck; and that he that was the Priest after this order, should judge among the Heathen, and wound the heads over many Countries; that in the day of his power the people should (not be frighted to obedience with thunder-claps, and earth-quakes, as at Mount Sinai) but should come and yield themselves as a free-will offering unto him, and yet their number be as great as the drops of the dew which distill in the morning. That God out of other Nations Isa. 66. 21. would take unto himself for Priests and for Levites; that the Hag. 2. 7. desire of all Nations should speedily come; that the Messenger Mal. 3. 1. of the Covenant (hould come into his Temple; nay, that feventy weeks are determined upon thy people, and upon thy holy City; that then the vision and prophecy should be sealed up; that the Sacrifice and Oblation should be caused to cease; that the City Dan. 9. 24,26, and the Sanctuary (hould be destroyed, and the end thereof shall be with a flood, and unto the end of the War desolations are determined; that after threeffore and two weeks Messias should be cut off, but not for himself; that by him transgression should be finished, and reconciliation for iniquity should be made, and everlasting righteousness should be brought in. And lest all these things should be apprehended to be only a higher advancing of the Levitical worship, and the way of external Ceremonies, God expresly saith, that he would make a new Covenant with the house of Israel, and with the house of Judah; not according to Jer. 31. 31,32. the Covenant that I made with their Fathers, in the day I took them by the hand to bring them out of the Land of Agypt, which my Covenant they brake, although I was an husband to them, Saith the Lord: But this shall be the Covenant that I will make with the house of Israel after those days, saith the Lord;

Lord; I will put my Law in their inward parts, and write it in their hearts, and will be their God, and they shall be my people. Can any one that now considers feriously the state of things thus described as it should come to pass, ever imagine that the Levitical service was ever calculated for this State? Was God's Worship to be confined to his Temple at Ferusalem. ouhen all the Nations of the earth (hould come to ferve him ? Was the High-priest to make an atonement there, when an order of Priest-hood different from the Aaronical should be fet up? Must the Tribe of Levi only attend at the Temple. when God should take Priests and Levites out of all Nations that serve him? What would become of the Magnificence and Glory of the Temple, when both City and Sanctuary shall be destroyed, and that must be within few prophetical weeks after the Messias is cut off? And must the Covenant God made with the Israelites continue for ever, when God expresly faith, he would make a New One, and that not according to the Covenant which he made with them then? It is so evident then. as nothing can well be more, that under the Old Testament, fuch a state of Religion was described and promised, with which the Levitical wor hip would be inconfiftent; and so that the Ceremonial Law was not at first established upon an immutable reason, which was the thing to be proved.

CHAP. VIII.

General Hypotheses concerning the Truth of the Doctrine of Christ.

The great prejudice against our Saviour among fews and Heathens, was the meanness of his appearance. The difference of the miracles at the delivery of the Law and Gospel. Some general Hypotheses to clear the subserviency of miracles to the Doctrine of Christ. 1. That where the truth of a doctrine depends not on evidence, but authority, the only way to prove the truth of the Doctrine, is to prove the Testimony of the Revealer to be infallible. Things may be true which depend not on evidence of the things. What that is, and on what it depends. The uncertainty of natural knowledge. The existence of God, the foundation of all certainty. The certainty of matter of faith proved from the same principle. Our knowledge of any thing supposeth something incomprehensible. The certainty of faith as great as that of knowledge; the grounds of it stronger. The consistency of rational evidence with faith. Yet objects of faith exceed reason; the absurdities following the contrary opinion. The uncertainty of that which is called reason. Philosophical dictates no standard of reason. Of transubstantiation and ubiquity, &c. wby rejected as contrary to reason. The foundation of faith in matters above reason. Which is infallible Testimony; that there are ways to know which is infallible, proved. 2. Hypoth. A Divine Testimony the most infallible. The resolution of faith into God's veracity as its formal object. 3. Hypoth. A Divine Testimony may be known, though God speak not immediately. Of inspiration among the Jews, and Divination among the Heathens. 4. Hypoth. The evidences of a Divine Titimony must be clear and certain. Of the common motives of faith, and the obligation to faith arising from them. The original of Infidelity.

Having now cleared that the Law of Moses was capable of a repeal, I come to the second enquiry, Whether the miracles of our Saviour did give a sufficient evidence of his power and Ee 2

Sect. 1.

authority to repeal it. I shall not (to prevent too large an excursion) insist on any other evidences of our Saviour's being the promifed Messias, but keep close to the matter of our prefent debate concerning the evidence which arifeth from such a power of Miracles as our Saviour had in order to his establishing that doctrine which he came to publish to the world. The great stumbling-block in reference to our blessed Saviour among both the Fews and learned Heathers, was the meanness of his appearance in the world, not coming attended with that state and magnificence, which they thought to be inseparable from so great a person. The Jews had their senses so possessed with the thundrings and lightnings on mount Sinai, that they could not imagine the structure of their Ceremonial worship could be taken down with less noise and terrour than it was ere-Eted with. And withall collecting all those passages of the old Testament which seemed to soretel such glorious things of the days of the Messias, (which either referr to his second coming, or must be understood in a piritual sence) they having their minds oppressed with the sense of their present calamities, applied them wholly to an external greatness, whereby they might be delivered from the Tyranny of the Roman power. The Heathens, as appears by Celfus and others, thought it very frange that the Son of God should appear in the world with so little grandeur, and have no greater Train than twelve fuch obscure persons as the Apostles were. For, faith Celsus, some & nas maila ra anλά φωτίζων σρώπεν αὐτον δεκκνύς, έτως έχριω πεποιηκέναι τ υίον τέ Des . As the Sun, which enlightens all other things, doth first discover himself, so it was fitting the Son of God should doe when he appeared to the world. And so we say he did to all such whose minds were not blinded through obstinacy and wilfull ignorance. For although this Son of righteousness was pleased for the better carrying on his design in the world to wrap up himself in a cloud, yet his glory could not be confined within it, but did break through that dark veil of his humane nature, and did discover it felf in a most clear and convincing manner. His appearances indeed were not like those upon Mount Sinai, because his design was not to amuse men with the glory of his Majesty, and to terrifie them from Idolatry, (which was a great reason of those dreadfull phanomena at the delivery of the Law) but he came to draw all men to him by the power and energy of his Grace, and therefore

Apud Orig. 1 2.

fore afford them all rational convictions in order to it. And therefore the quality of our Saviour's miracles was confiderable as well as the greatness of them. The intent of them all was to do good, and thereby to bring the world off from its sin and folly, to the embracing of that holy doctrine which he came to publish to the world.

Now that such a power of miracles in our Saviour had the greatest subserviency to the giving full and convincing evidence that he was the person he declared himself to be, and that his dostrine was thereby so clearly attested, that it was nothing but obstinacy, which could withhold assent, will appear by these following Hypotheses which I lay down in order to the proving it.

Where the truth of a dostrine depends not on the evidence of the things themselves, but on the authority of him that reveals it, there the only way to prove the dostrine to be true, is to prove the Testimony of him that revealed it to be infallible. Several things are necessary to be proved for the clearing this proposition.

1. That it is not repugnant to reason that a doctrine should be true which depends not upon the evidence of the thing it self. By evidence of the thing I understand so clear and distinct a perception of it, that every one who hath the use of his rational faculties, cannot but upon the first apprehension of the terms yield a certain assent to it; as that the whole is greater than a part; that if we take away equal things from equal, the remainder must be equal. Now we are to observe, that as to all these common notices of humane nature which carry such evidence with them, the certainty of them lies in the proposition as it is an act of the mind abstracted from the things themselves; for these do not suppose the existence of the things; but whether there be any such things in the world or no as whole or parts, the understanding is assured that the Idea of the whole carries more in its representation than that of a part does. This is the great reason of the certainty and evidence of Mathematical truths, not as some imagine, because men have no interest, or design, in those things, and therefore they never question them, but because they proceed not upon sensible but abstracted matter, which is not liable to so mamy doubts as the other is; for that a Triangle hath three Angles no man questions; but whether such sensible parts of matter make a Triangle, may be very questionable. Now that the truth

Sect. 2.

1. Hypoth.

B

of beings, or the certainty of existence of things cannot be so certain as Mathematical demonstrations, appears from hence: because the manner of conveyance of these things to my mind cannot be so clear and certain as in purely intellectual operations. abstracted from existent matter. For the highest evidences of the existence of things must be either the judgment of sense, or clear and distinct perception of the mind; now proceeding in a mere natural way, there can be no infallible certainty in either of these; For the perception of the mind in reference to the existence of things being caused so much through those Idea's or Phantasms which are conveyed to the understanding through the impressions of sense, if these may be demonstrated to be fallacious, I may well question the certainty of that, which I am certain I have been deserved by; supposing then I should question the truth of every thing which is conveyed in an uncertain way to my mind, I may foon out-go even Pyrrho himfelf in real Scepticism. Neither can I conceive how clear and distinct perception of any thing though not coming through the fenses, doth necessarily inferr the existence of the thing; for it only implies a non-repugnancy of it to our natural faculties, and confequently the bare possibility of it. For otherwise it were imposfible for us to have a clear perception of any thing any longer than it exists; nay, than we know it to exist; for existence or nonexistence is all one to the understanding, while it is not assured of either. And it is withall evident that things imaginary may clearly affect the mind as well as real, for I may have as real and distinct perception of a Phanix in my mind, as of a Partridge; doth it therefore follow that the one is really existent as well as the other? and it will be a very hard matter to affign a certain difference between imagination and pure intellection in fuch things, which though not actually existent, yet imply no repugnancy at all to the faculties of mens minds. It is evident then, that there cannot be so great certainty of the existence of things as there may be of Mathematical demonstrations.

And if that principle be supposed as the foundation of all Physical certainty as to the being of things, viz. that there is a God who being infinitely good will not suffer the minds of men to be deceived in those things which they have a clear and distinct perception of (without which supposition we cannot be assured of the certainty of any operations of the mind, because we cannot know

Sect. 3.

I.

but we were so made that we might be then most deceived. when we thought our felves most fure:) If this principle, I say, be supposed as the foundation of all certain knowledge, then from it I inferr many things which are very much advantageous

to our certainty in matters of faith.

That the foundation of all certainty lies in the necessary existence of a being absolutely perfect. So that unless I know that there is a God, I cannot be affured that I know any thing in a certain manner; and if I know there is a God, I must necessarily apprehend him to be absolutely perfect; because the grounds of my knowledge, that there is a God, are from those absolute perfections, which there are in him; and if I could suppose him not absolutely perfect, I must suppose him not to be God; for that is necessarily implied in his definition. Now then if all certainty doth suppose the existence of a being so absolutely perfect, I must, before I can know any thing certainly, conclude that there is an infinity of knowledge, wisdom, power and goodness in this God; for those are things which all who understand them will grant to be perfections; and if they be in God, they must be abfolute, i.e. infinite. And if they be infinite, it necessarily follows that they must transcend our apprehensions; so that now we have gained this principle in order to faith, that we must grant fomething to be unconceivable before we can come certainly to know any thing. From whence it follows that those who will not believe any thing to be true because it is above their apprebensions, must deny the foundation of all certainty, which (as we have proved) doth suppose something to be infinite, or above our capacity to comprehend.

That we have us great certainty of what-ever is revealed to us Sect. 4. from God, as we can have of the truth of any thing which we most clearly understand. For the trueb of knowledge depending on this Supposition, That there is a God whose goodness will not suffer us to be deceived in the things we clearly understand; there is the same foundation for the act of faith as for that of knowledge, viz. That God will not suffer us to be deceived in matters which himself bath revealed to us. Nay there seems to be far greater on these accounts. First, That there is not so great danger to be deceived in reference to objects of sense, as there is in reference to objects of Divine revelation: because objects of sense make a continual impression upon the Organs of sense; and as to these

things.

things we see the whole world agrees in them so far as they are necessary to life, and withall they bear a greater correspondency to the present state of imperfection which the soul is now in: but now matters of Divine revelation are of a more sublime and spiritual nature, which mens minds on that account are more apt to doubt of, than of things obvious to sense; and withall they call the mind so much off from sense that on these accounts the proneness to doubt is greater, and therefore the foundation of certainty from God's not suffering us to be deceived must be stronger. Secondly, There is not so great danger in being deceived as to matters of sense or knowledge, as there is in things of Divine revelation. For we see, granting sense to be deceived, and that we have no certainty at all in natural things, yet affairs of life are managed still; men's outward welfare depends not on the judgment of sense; the merchant hath never the less gold in his Ship because his sense deceives him in judging that the earth moves from him, when the Ship moves from it The Sun doth nevertheless inlighten the world, though our senses be all of Epicurus his mind, that the Sun is no bigger than he feems to be; but now as to matters of Divine revelation, they are things of the most unspeakable weight and importance, which depend upon our believing or disbelieving them. And therefore if the goodness of God be such as it will not suffer us to be deceived in our judgment of material and sensible beings, how much less in reference to the foundation of our certainty as to things Divinely revealed? We see then what rational evidence there is not only consistent with, but necessarily implied in the foundation of faith, even as great as in any thing which we do most perfectly know; so that the in-evidence which is so much spoken of as an ingredient of the nature of faith, must not be understood of the foundation whereon the act of faith doth stand, but of the condition of the object, which being a matter of divine revelation, is a thing not obvious to our senses: In which fence the Apostle speaks, that faith is exm cousing inisans, τραγμάτων έλεγχ & βλεπουθίων, the firm expectation of things hoped for, and strong conviction of things which are not feen: In which words, as Erasmus well observes, is contained only an high Encomium of faith, and no dialectical definition of it; viz. that faith foars above things of sense or present enjoyment; yea, though the objects of it be never so remote from either.

Heb. 11. 1.

either, yet where there is sufficient evidences of divine revelation, faith boggles at no difficulties, but is firmly resolved that that God who hath revealed these things, can and will bring them to pass in his own time. There is not then any such contrariety between the foundation of faith and knowledge, as the Schoolmen have persuaded the world; we see both of them proceed on the same foundation of certainty; all the difference is, faith fixeth on the veracity of God immediately in reference to a divine testimony; knowledge proceeds upon it, supposing no divine revelation as to the things it doth discover.

We hence inferr, that if the certainty of our knowledge depends on this principle, that God will not suffer us to be deceived, then we are bound to believe whatever God doth reveal to us, though we may not be able to comprehend the nature of the things revealed. For as to these things, we have the same ground of certainty which we have as to any natural causes, for as to them, we now suppose from the former principle, that setting aside the existence of God, we could have no certainty of them, but that the formal reason of our certainty is resolved into this, that God's goodness will not suffer the understanding to be deceived as to these things; the same I say as to spiritual mysteries revealed by God; the ground of our certainty lies not in the evidence of the things, but in the undoubted veracity of God, who hath revealed them. All that I can imagine possible to be replied to this, is, That God's veracity assures us in natural caules that we are not deceived, only where we have a clear and distinct perception of the things, but now in matters above our reason to comprehend, there can be no clear and distinct percepti-To this I answer,

First, It is evident in the foundation of all certainty of know-ledge, that there may be a clear and distinct perception of that which we cannot comprehend, viz. of a being absolutely perfect; for if we have not a clear and distinct perception of God, the foundation of all certainty is destroyed, which is the necessary existence of such a being; and he that shall say he cannot have a clear perception of God without comprehending him, doth contradict himself; for if he be a being infinite, he must be incomprehensible; therefore there may be clear perception, where the object it self is above our capacity. Now whatever foundation there is in nature for such a perception without comprehension;

Sect. 5.

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13.

that and much more is there in fuch things as are revealed by God, though above our apprehension: For the Idea of God upon the soul of man cannot be so strong an evidence of the existence of a being above our apprehension, as the revelation of matters of faith is, that we should believe the things so revealed though our understandings lose themselves in striving to reach the natures of them, and the manner of their existence.

Secondly, That which is the only foundation of a scruple in this cale, is a principle most unreasonable in it self, that we are to imbrace nothing for truth, though divinely revealed, but what our reason is able to comprehend as to the nature of the thing, and the manner of its existence; on which account the destrine of the Trinity, Incarnation, Satisfaction, and consequently the whole mystery of the Gespel of Christ must be rejected as incredible, and that on this bare pretence, because although many expressions in Scripture feem to import all these things, yet we are bound to interpret them to another sence, because this is incongruous to our reason. But although Christianity be a Religion which comes in the highest way of credibility to the minds of men, although we are not bound to believe any thing but what we have fufficient reason to make it appear that it is revealed by God, yet that any thing should be questioned whether it be of divine revelation, merely because our reason is to seek, as to the full and adæquate conception of it, is a most absurd and unreasonable pretence: And the Assertors of it must run themselves on these unavoidable absurdities.

First, Of believing nothing either in nature or Religion to be true, but what they can give a full and satisfactory account of, as to every mode and circumstance of it. Therefore let such persons first try themselves in all the appearances of nature; and then we may suppose they will not believe that the Sun shines, till they have by demonstrative arguments proved the undoubted truth of the Ptolomaick or Copernican hypothesis; that they will never give credit to the flux and reflux of the Sea, till they clearly resolve the doubts which attend the several opinions of it. That there is no such thing as matter in the world, till they can satisfactorily tell us how the parts of it are united; nor that there are any material beings, till they have resolved all the perplexing difficulties about the several affections of them; and that themselves have not so much as a rational soul, till they

they are bound to satisfie us of the manner of the union of the soul and body together. And if they can expedite all these, and many more difficulties about the most obvious things (about which it is another thing to frame bandsome and consistent hypotheses, than to give a certain account of them) then let them be let loose to the matters of divine revelation; as to which yet (if they could perform the other) there were no reason for such an undertaking; for that were,

Secondly, To commensurate the Perfections of God with the narrow capacity of the humane intellect; which is contrary to the natural Idea of God; and to the manner whereby we take up our conceptions of God; for the Idea of God doth suppose incomprehensibility to belong to his nature; and the manner whereby we form our conceptions of God, is, by taking away all the imperfections we find in our selves, from the conception we form of a being absolutely perfect, and by adding infinity to all the perfections we find in our own natures. Now this method of proceeding doth necessarily imply a vast distance and disproportion between a finite and infinite understanding. And if the understanding of God be infinite, why may not he discover such things to us, which our shallow apprehensions cannot reach unto? what ground or evidence of reason can we have that an infinite wisdom and understanding, when it undertakes to discover matters of the bigbest nature and concernment to the world, should be able to deliver nothing but what comes within the compass of our imperfect and narrow intellects? And that it should not be sufficient that the matters revealed do none of them contradict the prime results or common notions of mankind (which none of them do) but that every particular mode and circumstance, as to the manner of existence in God, or the extent of his omnipotent power, must pass the scruting of our faculties, before it obtains a placet for a divine revelation?

Thirdly, It must follow from this principle, That the pretenders to it must affirm the rules or maxims which they go by in the judgment of things, are the infallible standard of reason: Else they are as far to seek in the judgment of the truth of things as any others are. They must then, to be consistent with their principle, affirm themselves to be the absolute Masters of reason: Now reason consisting of observations made concerning the natures of all beings, for so it must be considered, as it is

Sect. 6.

a rule of judging. viz. as a System of infallible rules collected from the natures of things) they who pretend to it, must demonstrate these general maxims according to which they judge, to be collected from an universal undoubted bistory of nature, which lies yet too dark and obscure for any to pretend to the full knowledge of and would be only a demonstration of the highest arrogance after so many successes endeavours, of the most searching wits in any society of persons to usurp it to themselves, especially if such persons are so far from searching into the depths of nature, that they fuffer themselves very fairly to be led by the nose by the most dogmatical of all Philosophers; and that in such principles which the more inquisitive world hath now found to be very thort, uncertain and fallacious. And upon severe enquiry we shall find the grand principles which have been taken by these advers of reason, for almost the standard of it, have been some Theories which have been taken up merely from observation of the course of nature by such persons, who scarce owned any hand of providence in the world. Now it cannot otherwise be conceived but that these theories or principles formed from fuch a narrow inspection into the natures of things, must make strange work when we come to apply those things to them, which were never looked at in the forming of them: Whence came those two received principles, that nothing can be produced out of nothing; that there is no possible return from a privation to a habit, but from those Philosophers who believed there was nothing but matter in the world; or if they did affert the existence of a God, yet supposed him unconcerned in the Government of the world. Whence come our Masters of reason to tell us that the soul cannot subsist after death without the body? from what Philosophy was this derived? certainly from that which was very loth to acknowledge the immortality of the foul of man: And any one who strictly observes the close coherence of the principles of the Peripatetick Philosophy will find very little room left for an eternal being to interpose it self in the world; and therefore some have shrewdly observed that Aristotle speaks more favourably of the being of God in his Exetericks, than in his Acromaticks, which all that know the reason of the names, will guess at the reason of. I demand then, must the received principles of Philosophy, and those short imperfect Theories, which were formed more from tradition than experience,

by the ancient Greeks, be taken from the standard of reason or no? If they must, we may soon for sake not only the sublimer mysteries of the Trinity, Divinity of Christ, Resurrection, &c. but we shall soon shake bands with Creation, Providence. if not immortality of sculs, and the Being of God himself. If these things be disowned as the standard of reason, let us know what will be substituted in the room of them; and what Laws our faith must be tryed by. Are they only Mathematical demonstrations, or the undoubted common notions of humane nature, which whosoever understands assents to them? let any of the forementioned mysteries be made appear to contradict these, and we will readily yield up our selves captives to reason: But in the mean time let no jejune unproved Hypotheses in Philosophy, be set as Judges over matters of faith, whose only warrant for that office must be Stat pro ratione voluntas. Let the principles we proceed by, be first manifested to be collected from a most certain and universal inspection into the nature of all beings, let the manner of process be shewed how they were collected (lest they labour with the common fault of the Chymists, of establishing hypostatical principles from the experiments of some particular bodies, which others do as evidently refute) and lastly, let it be made appear that these principles, thus collected, will serve indifferently for all beings, spiritual as well as material, infinite as well as finite, and when this Task is exactly performed, we will make room for Reason to sit upon the Bench, and bring the Scripture as the Prisoner to its Bar.

Fourthly, According to this principle, what certainty can we have at all of any thing we are to believe? who hath fixed the bounds of that which men call reason? how shall we know that thus far it will come, and no further? If no banks be raised against it to keep it in its due channel, we may have cause to fear it may in time overthrow not only the Trinity, Incarnation, Resurrection of the dead, but all other articles of the Creed too? What prescription can be pleaded by one fort of men for reason more than for another? One will not believe this article of his faith, because against his reason; and why not another reject another article on the same pretence? for whatever the ground of unbelief be, if it be but baptized by the name of reason, it must by this principle pass uncontrouled;

Sect. 7:

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if a fullen Philosopher shall tell us, that the notion of an immaterial substance contradicts his reason as much as the Trinity doth theirs, and that the Universe is nothing else but a System of bodies, by what Artifice will our Master of reason purge away all that black choler, that so clouds his mind, that he cannot see the notion of a spirit through it? And such a one will make a hard hift, but he will reconcile his opinion with Scripture too; and therefore why should he be bound up to mens explications of Scripture, when there is no necessity, that he can fee, of understanding it in any other way than his own? If another should come and tell us, that we must be all Anthropomorphites, and that otherwise the Scripture were not intelligible; shall not this man put in for reason too? Nay, lastly, if another shall come and speak out, and tell us Religion is but a device of subtle men, that all things come to pass through chance, that the world was made by a fortuitous concourse of Atoms, and that all are fools which are not Atheists, and that it is impossible to apprehend the Being of a God, and therefore by the same reason that they reject some mysteries of Religion, he rejects the foundation of all; because an infinite being is incomprehensible: whither now hath our Reason carried us? while we pretend to reject any thing as divinely revealed, merely on that account, that it is above our reason? But it may be replied. On what account then do we reject the Doctrine of Transubstantiation, and the ubiquity of the body of Christ, as repugnant to reason, if we do not make reason judge in matters of faith? I answer, I. We reject these opinions not only as repugnant to reason, but as insufficiently proved from Scripture, whereas we here suppose (it not being our present business to prove it) that the several Dostrines of the Trinity, Incarnation, Resurrection of bodies, &c. are only rejected on that account, that though Scripture seems to speak fair for them, yet it is otherwise to be interpreted, because supposed to be repugnant to reason. 2. Those Doctrines before mentioned are eminently serviceable to promote the great end of the Golpel, and are inlaid in the very foundation of it, as that of the Trinity, and Divinity of Christ; but these we now mention are no ways conduceable to that end; but feem to thwart and overthrow it, and Transubstantiation establisheth a way of worthip contrary to the Gospel. 2. All the founda-

27

tion of Transubstantiation is laid upon ambiguous places of Scripture, which must of necessity have some Tropes and Figures in them; but the Doctrine of the Trinity is not only contained in plain Scripture, but is evidenced by visible appearance, as particularly at the baptism of our Saviour, 4. There is far greater ground why we should reject Transubstantiation and ubiquity, as inconfiftent with reason, than that they should the Trinity, on this account, because the grounds of reason on which we reject those opinions, are fetched from those effential and injeparable properties of bodies, which are inconsistent with those opinions; now these are things within the reach of our understandings (in which case God himself sometimes appeals to reason) but it is quite another case, when we search into the incomprehensible nature of God, and pronounce with confidence that fuch things cannot be in God, because we cannot comprebend them; which gives a sufficient answer to this obje-Etion. The substance then of this discourse is, that whatever Doctrine is sufficiently manifested to be of divine revelation, is to be embraced and believed as undoubtedly true, though our reason cannot reach to the full apprehension of all the Modes and Circumstances of it. So that as to these sublime mysteries our faith stands upon this twofold bottom. First, That the being, understanding, and power of God doth infinitely transcend ours, and therefore be may reveal to us matters above our reach and capacity. Secondly, That whatever God doth reveal is undoubtedly true, though we may not fully understand it; for this is a most undoubted principle, that God cannot and will not deceive any in those things which he reveals to men. Thus our first supposition is cleared, that it is not repugnant to reason, that a doctrine may be true, which depends not on the evidence of the thing it (elf.

The second is, That in matters whose truth depends not on the evidence of the things themselves, infallible testimony is the fullest demonstration of them. For these things, not being of Mathematical evidence, there must be some other way sound out for demonstrating the truth of them. And in all those things whose truth depends on Testimony, the more creditable the Testimony is, the higher evidence is given to them; but that Testimony which may deceive, cannot give so pregnant an evidence as that which cannot; for then all imaginable

objections.

objections are taken off. This is so clear, that it needs no fur-

ther proof; and therefore the third follows.

That there are certain ways whereby to know that a Testimeny delivered is infallible; and that is fully proved by these two Arguments. 1. That it is the duty of all thefe to whom it is propounded to believe it; now how could that be a duty in them to believe, which they had no ways to know whether it were a Testimony to be believed, or no? 2. Because God will condemn the world for unbelief: In which the Justice of God's proceedings doth necessarily suppose that there were sufficient arguments to induce them to believe, which could not be, unless there were some certain way supposed whereby a Testimony may be known to be infallible. These three things now being supposed, viz. that a Doctrine may be true which depends not on evidence of reason; that the greatest demonstration of the truth of such a Doctrine, is its being delivered by infallible Testimony; and that there are certain ways whereby a Testimony may be known to be infallible, Our first principle is fully confirmed, which was, that where the truth of a Do-Etrine depends not on evidence of reason, but on the authority of him that reveals it, the only way to prove the Doctrine to be true, is to prove the Testimony of him that reveals it to be infallible.

Sect. 8. Hyp. 2.

The next principle or Hypothesis which I lay down, is, That there can be no greater evidence that a Testimony is infallible, than that it is the Testimony of God himself. The truth of this depends upon a common notion of humans nature, which is the veracity of God in whatever way he discovers himself to men; and therefore the ultimate resolution of our faith, as to its formal object, must be alone into the veracity of God revealing things unto us; for the principium certitudinis, or foundation of all certain affent can be fetched no higher, neither will it stand any lower than the infallible verity of God himself; and the principium patefactionis, or the ground of discovery of spiritual truth to our minds must be resolved into Divine Testimony, or Revelation. These two then not taken afunder, but joyntly, God, who cannot lye, hath revealed these things, is the only certain foundation for a divine faith to rest it self upon. But now the particular exercise of a Divine faith lies in a firm affent to fuch a particular thing

thing as Divinely revealed, and herein lies not so much the Testimony, as the peculiar energy of the Spirit of God in inclining the foul to believe peculiar objects of faith, as of Divine revelation. But the general ground of faith, which they call the formal object, or the ratio propter quam credimus is the general infallibility of a Divine Testimony. For in a matter concerning divine revelation, there are two great questions to be resolved; The first is, Why I believe a Divine Testimony with a firm affent? The answer to that is, Because I am asfured, that whatever God speaks is true: the other is, upon what grounds do I believe this to be a Divine Testimony? the resolution of which, as far as I can understand, must be fetched from those rational evidences whereby a Divine Testimony must be distinguished from one merely humane and fallible. For the Spirit of God in its workings upon the mind, doth not carry it on by a brutish impulse, but draws it by a spiritual discovery of fuch strong and persuasive grounds to assent to what is revealed, that the mind doth readily give a firm affent to that which it sees such convincing reason to believe. Now the strongest reason to believe, is the manifestation of a divine Testimony; which the Spirit of God so clearly discovers to a true believer, that he not only firmly affents to the general foundation of faith, the veracity of God, but to the particular object propounded, as amatter of Divine Revelation. But this latter question is not here the matter of our discourse; our proposition only concerns the general foundation of faith, which appears to be so rational and evident, as no principle in nature can be more. For if the Testimony on which I am to rely be only God's, and I be affured from natural reason, that his Testimony can be no other than infallible, wherein doth the certainty of the foundation of faith fall short of that in any Mathematical demonstration? Upon which account a Divine Testimony hath been regarded with so in ich wener ition among all who have owned a Deity, although they have been unacquainted with any certain way of Divine reveration. And the reason why any rejected such a Testimony among the Heathens, was either, because they believed not a Duty, or else that the particular Testim nies produced were mere frauds and impostures, and therefore no Divine Te," imony as it was given out to be. But the principle still remained indiputable, Gg that

In fragment. Cicer.

that on supposition the Testimony were what it pretended to be, there was the greatest reason to believe it although it came not in such a way of probation, as their sciences proceeded in From which principle arose that speech of Tully which he hath translated out of Plato's Timæus, Ac difficillimum fa-Etu a Diis ortis fidem non habere, quanquam nec argumentis nec rationibus certis eorum oratio confirmetur. By which we fee what a presumption there was of Truth, where there was any evidence of a Divine Testimony. And no doubt upon the advantage of this principle it was the Devil gained so great credit to his oracles; for therein he did the most imitate divine revelation. From hence then we see what a firm bottom faith in the general stands upon, which is nothing short of an Infallible Divine Testimony: other things may conduce by way of subserviency for the discovery of this; but nothing else can be a sure foundation for a Divine faith, but what is a Testimony of God himself.

Sett. 9. Нур. 3.

A Testimony may be known to be divine and infallible, though God himself do not speak in an immediate way. - By being known, I do not mean the firm perswasion of a mind inlightned by the Spirit of God, but that there are sufficient evidences ex parte rei to convince men of it, which are not wilfully blind and obstinate, i.e. that the ground of unbelief in any cannot be imputed to the defect of sufficient motives to faith, but to their own perver [ness and prejudice in not discerning them. Now that God may reveal and declare his mind to the world, not in an immediate way, but by some instruments he may make use of to that end, is not only evident from the great suitableness of such a way to the conditions of the persons he speaks to, but from the general persuasion of the world concerning the possibility of Inspiration. The fews are so far from denying this, that it is the very foundation of their religion as well as ours, God discovering the most of his will to them by the Prophets or by persons Divinely inspired. And the general consent of all other Nations, that there is fuch a principle as Divination in the world, doth make it evident, that it carries no repugnancy at all to natural light, supposing that there is a God, that he should reveal his mind by some particular persons unto the world. For which purpose the Testimony of Tully in the entrance of his Books de Divi-

natione.

natione, is very considerable. Vetus opinio est jam usque ab Heroicis ducta temporibus, eaque & populi Romani & om. L. 1. de Div. nium gentium firmata consensu, versari quandam inter homines divinationem, quam Græci uarnulu appellant, i. e. præsensionem & scientiam rerum futurarum; and soon after adds, gentem quidem nullam video neque tam humanam atque doctam. neque tam immanem atque barbaram, quæ non significari futura, & a quibusdam intelligi, prædicique posse censeat. He makes it appear to be an universal sentiment of all Nations in the world, and instanceth particularly in the Assyrians, Agyptians, Cilicians, Pisidians, Pamphylians, Grecians, Romans, Etrurians, and others. It is true indeed he after mentions some Philosophers who denyed it; but they were most part the followers of Epicurus, who denyed any providence, and therefore might well take away divination; but if Xenophanes Colophonius had any followers who afferted the one, and denyed the other (as Tally feems to intimate that he was alone in that per [waston] yet we may probably suppose the reason of their rejecting it might be the impostures which went under the name of Divination among them; which are excellently discovered by that Prince of Roman Philosophers as well as Orators, in his (econd book of Divination; but it is apparent by the same Author, that the generality of Philosophers consented with the people in this perswasion, as the followers of those three great Sects of Socrates, Pythagoras, and Arifotle were all approvers of it; but of all persons the Stoicks were the most zealous contenders for it, especially Chrysppus, Diogenes Babylonius, Antipater and Possidenius: some indeed rejected some ways of Divination, yet embraced others, as Dicarchus and Cratippus, who rejected all but dreams and ecstasies; but in the general we find these two principles went together among them, the existence of a Deity and the certainty of Dismation; so that from Divination they proved a Deity, and from a Deity Divination. Si sunt genera divinandi vera, esse Deos; vicissimque si Die sint, esse qui divinent, as Quintus Cicero there speaks: and at last thus triumphs in the multitude of his witnesses, An dum bestiæ loquantur expectamus, hominum consentiente auctoritate contenti non simus? It may not be amis to produce the chief argument on which the Stoicks infifted to prove the neceffity of Divination, supposing the existence of a Deity. If there Gg 2 60

be Gods, fay they, and they do not reveal to men things to come it either is because they do not love them, or because they do not know themselves what shall come to pass, or they think it is of no concernment to men to know future things, or that it doth not become their Majesty to reveal them, or that they cannot reweal them to men if they would; but neither is it true that they do not love men; for the Gods are of abountiful nature and friends to mankind, neither can they be ignorant of future things, because they are appointed and decreed by them, neither is it of no concernment to men to know future things; for that makes them more cautious if they know them; neither is it repugnant to their Majesty to reveal them, for nothing is more noble than bounty and doing good; and they must needs know these things; therefore they may make them known to others; and if they do make them known, there must be some way whereby to know that they do fo; or elfe they signifie them to no purpose. If now instead of the knowledge of future contingencies, and the multitude of their Gods, they had infifted on the discovery and revelation by the true God of those ways, which may lead men to eternal happines, that argument had been frong and convincing, which as it stands is Sophistical and fallacious. So that it is very plain, that not only a possibility of Divination was acknowledged by those who wanted Divine revelation, but that this divination did not arise from mere natural causes. but from an afflatus Divinus, and a concitatio quadam animi, as they there heak, which imports nothing short of Divine inspiration. Nay the opinion of this was so common among them, that they thought any extraordinary persons had something of Divine Enthusiasm in them, as Tully elsewhere tells us, Nemo vir magnus sine aliquo afflatu Divino unquam fuit. Although then these Heathens were greatly mistaken as to those things they took for a Divine afflatus and Divination, yet we cannot conceive so general a sence should be imprinted on the minds of men of fuch a thing as that was, were it not a thing highly consonant to principles of reason, that God should communicate his mind to the world by the inspiration of some per/ons. And therefore I conceive that Cicero and his brother Quintus, who manage that excellent dispute of Divination between them, have divided the truth between them too. For on the one fide Quintus evidently proves the possibility of the thing ,

L.2. de Nat. Deorum. thing, the consequence of it upon the acknowledgment of a Deity, and the general consent of mankind in the owning of it; and on the other fide Tully himself excellently lays open the vanity, folly, and uncertainty, not only of the common ways of Divination, but of the oracles which were in such great esteem among the Heathens. And although Tully doth so sharply and larcastically answer the argument from the common consent of men; quasi vero quidquam sit tam valde, quam nihil sapere, vulgare; as though nothing men did more generally agree in, than in being fools; yet as it is evident that the ground of that scoff was from the several manners of Divination then in use, so it cannot be thought to be a general impeachment of humane nature in a thing so consequent upon the being of a God, which as himself elsewhere proves, is as clear from reason as from that Testimonium gentium in hac una re non dissidentium, as the Christian Cicero, Lactantius speaks, the Defals religions consent of Nations, which scarce agree in any thing else, but cap. 2. that there is a God. That which we now inferr from hence is, That God may make known his mind in a way infallible, though not immediate; for in case of Inspiration of mere men, it is not they fo much which speak, as God by them; and in case that God himself should speak through the veil of humane nature, the Testimony must needs be infallible, though the appearance of the Divinity be not visible.

Those evidences whereby a Divine Testimony may be known, must be such as may not leave mens minds in suspense, but are of their own nature convincing proofs of it. For although as to the event some may doubt, and others disbelieve the Testimony so proved, yet it is sufficient for our purpose, that in the nature of the things (supposing them to be such as we speak of) they are sufficient for the eviction that the testimony attested by them is divine and infallible. I know it is a great dispute among many, whether those things which are usually called the common motives of faith, do of their own nature only induce a probable persuasion of the truth of the doctrine as probable which they are joyned with, or else are they sufficient for the producing a firm affent to the dollrine as True? I grant they are not demonstrative so as to inforce assent; for we see the contrary by the experience of all ages; but that they are not sufficient foundation for an unprejudiced mind to establish

Sect. 10. Нур. 4.

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a firm assent upon, is a thing not easie to be granted; chiefly upon this account, that an obligation to believe doth lie upon every one to whom these evidences of a Divine Testimony are sufficiently discovered. And otherwise of all sins the sin of unbelief as to God reveating his mind, were the most excusable and pardonable sin; nay, it would be little less than a part of prudence; because what can it be accounted but temerity and imprudence in any to believe a dostrine as true only upon probable inducements? and what can it be but wisdom to with-hold assent upon a mere verisimilitude? considering what the Lyrick Poet hath long since truly told us.

Pindar.Od. 1.

κ) πέ π κ) βερπώ φείτα τως τ άληθη λόρον δεδαιδαλμιώοι ζεύδεπ ποικίλοις "Σαπατώνπ μύθοι.

That a falshood may frequently seem truer to common understandings than truth its self: and as Menander speaks, το πθανον ίχον τ άληθείας έχει ενίθε μείζω, κ πθανωτέραν όχλε, that a mere versimilitude may have more force on vulgar minds than truth hath. If therefore there be no evidences given fufficient to carry the minds of men beyond mere probability, what fin can it be in those to di believe who cannot be obliged to believe as true what is only discovered as probable: I cannot therefore fee how an obligation to believe a Divine Testimony is consistent with their opinion, who make the utmost which any outward evidences can extend to, to be only the bare credibility of the doctrine attested by them. I can very well fatisfie my felf with the ground and reason why the more fubtle wits of the Church of Rome do affert this; for if nothing else can be produced by all motives of faith but only a probable per wasien of the truth of Christian doctrine, then here comes in the fairest pretence for the Infallibility of their Church; for otherwise they tell us we can have no foundation for a Divine faith; for how can that be a foundation for Divine faith, which can reach no higher than a moral inducement, and beget only a probable persuasion of the credibility of the dostrine of Christ? But on what account those who disown the Infallibility of the Church of Rome in the proposal of matters of faith, should yet consent with those of it in an hypothesis taken up in probability, merely out of subserviency to that most advantageous piece piece of the mystery of iniquity, is not easie to resolve. Unless the over-fondness of some upon the dostrine of the Schools. more than of the Gospel, hath been the occasion of it. For how agreeable can that opinion be to the Gospel which so evidently puts the most defensive weapons into the hands of unbelief? For doubtless in the judgment of any rational person, a mere probable perswasion of the credibility of the doctrine of Christ, where an assent to it as true is required, can never be looked on as an act of faith; for if my affent to the truth of the thing be according to the strength of the arguments inducing me to believe, and these arguments do only prove a probability of Divine Testimony, my assent can be no stronger than to a thing merely probable; which is, that it may be, or not be true; which is not properly affent, but a suspending our judgments till some convincing argument be produced on either side therefore according to this opinion those who saw all the miracles which Christ did, could not be bound to believe in Christ, but only to have a favourable opinion of his person and doctrine, as a thing which though not evidenced to be true by what he did, yet it was very piously credible; but they must have a care withal of venturing their belief too far, only on such moral inducements as miracles were, for fear they should go further than the force of the arguments would carry them. Had not this opinion now, think we, been a very probable way to have converted the world upon the Preaching of Christ and his Apostles; when Christ faith, though ye believe Joh. 10. 38. not me, believe the works, that ye may know and believe that the Father is in me, and I in him? Nay, faith this opinion, that is more than we are bound to do, though we fee thy works we are not bound to believe thy Testimony to be Divine and certainly true; but we will do all we are bound to do: we will entertain a favourable opinion of thy person and dostrine, and wait for fomewhat elfe, but we do not well know what, to perswade us to believe. When the Apostles Preach the danger of unbelief, because the dostrine of the Gospel was confirmed by signs and wonders, and divers miracles and gifts of the Holy Ghost; what a fair answer doth this opinion put into the mouths of Infidels, that notwithstanding all these signs and wonders, they were never bound to believe the Gospel as a certain Truth, and therefore they hope the danger is not so great in neglecting the falvation promised by the Gospel. I can-

Sect. II.

I cannot conceive that men otherwise learned and sober. should with so much confidence affert that the rational evidences of a Divine Testimony are insufficient to prove a doctrine true. unless it be from hence, that they find that notwithstanding the strongest evidences many persons continue in unbelief. For say they, if these arguments were scientifical and demonstrative, (as they speak) of the truth of the doctrine attested by them, then all persons to whom they are propounded, must certainly believe. But this is very eafily answered; for we speak not of internal. but outward evidence; not of that in the subject, but of the objest, or more fully of the reason of the thing, and not the event in us; for doubtless there may be undoubted truth and evidence in many things which some persons either cannot or will not understand. If Epicurus should contend still that the Sun and ftars are no bigger than they feem to be, will it hence follow that there can be no ratical demonstration of the contrary? Nay, if the way of demonstration be offered him, and Telescopes put into his bands, yet if he be resolved to maintain his credit, and therefore his opinion, and will not use the Telescopes, or suspect still they are intended only to deceive his sight. what possible way will there be of convincing such a person, though the thing be in its felf demonstrable? Now if the strength of prejudice or maintaining of credit can prevail fo much in matters of Mathematical evidence, to with-hold affent. what power may we think a corrupt interest may have upon the understanding, as to the arguments which tend to prove the truth of that doctrine, which is so repugnant to that carnal interest which the heart is already devoted to! Our Blessed Saviour hath himself given us so full an account of the original and causes of unbelief in the persons he conversed with, that that may yield us a sufficient answer to this objection. He tells us the ground of it was not want of light, nay, there was light sufficient to convince any, but that those to whom the light came loved darkness rather than it, because their deeds were evil. That they could not believe while they received honour one of another, and fought not the honour which was of God only, i. e. That they were so greedy of applause from each other, that they would not impartially fearch into the truth of that dostrine, which did touch their fores to to the quick, that they had rather have them fester upon than

Joh. 3. 19.

Joh. 5. 44.

than go to the trouble of so sharp a cure. That the reason so few followed him was because the way was narrow and the Mat. 7. 14. gate strait which men must go in at; and therefore no wonder so few of the rich and proud Pharisees could get in at it; they were partly so swell'd with a high opinion of themselves, and partly so loaden with their riches, that they thought it was to no purpose for them to think of going in at so strait a gate, while they were resolved to part with neither.

That the final ground of the rejection of any, was not want of evidence to bring them to believe, nor want of readiness in Christ to receive them if they did, but it was a peevish, wil Joh. 5. 40. full, obstinate, malicious spirit that they would not come to Christ, nor believe his Doctrine (for those import the same) but when the most convincing miracles were used, they would ra- Matth. 11. 24. ther attribute them to the Prince of Devils, than to the power of God. And though our Saviour presently by rational and demonstrative arguments did prove the contrary to their faces; yet we see thereby it was a resolution not to be convinced, or yield to the Truth, which was the cause why they did not believe. Now from this very instance of our Saviour's proceedings with the Pharisees by rational arguments, I demand, whether these arguments of our Saviour were sufficient foundations for a divine assent to that truth that our Saviour did not his miracles by any Diabolical but by Divine power or no? If they were, then it is evident that rational evidence may be a foundation for Divine faith, or that some motives to believe may be so frong, as to be sufficient evidence of the truth and certainty of the Doctrine: If these arguments were not sufficient proofs of what our Saviour spake, then welfare the Pharifees; it feems they faid nothing but what might be thus far justified, that the contrary to it could not be demonstrated. And if the evidence of our Saviour's miracles were so great, as fome suppose, that the Pharisees could not but be convinced that they were divine; but out of their malice and envy they uttered this blashbemy against the Holy Ghost, to keep the people from following Christ; then we hence inferr two things: First, How strong an evidence there was in the miracles of Christ, when it convinced his most resolute enemies that they were divine. Secondly, What power a corrupt will may have over a convinced understanding: For although the will may

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not hinder conviction, yet it may foon stifle it, by suggesting those things to the mind which may divert it from those convi-Etions of Truth; and feek to find out any ways to diffrace it. It would be no difficult task to discover in all those instances. wherein the unbelief of men is discovered in the New Testament, that the persons guilty of it did not proceed like rational men, or fuch as defired Truth, but were wholly carried away through passion, interest, prejudice, disaffection, or some other caule of that nature, which may give us a sufficient account why those persons did not believe, although there might be clear and undoubted evidence to persuade them to it. But although I affert that these rational evidences are sufficient arguments of the truth of the destrine they come to manifest, vet I would not be so understood, that I thereby resolve all Religion into a mere act of reason and knowledge, and that no more power is required in the understanding to believe the Go-Bel, than to believe a Mathematical demonstration: which is. another objection some lay in the way of this opinion; but it is not difficult getting over it. For the sufficiency which I attribute to rational evidence, is not absolute and simple, but in suo genere, as an objective evidence. Notwithstanding this, the whole work of the Spirit of God in its peculiar energy and way of operation upon the foul, is left entire to it felf: But then when the first works as to the planting of a truly divine faith, I do not think that it only persuades the soul of the Truth of a Divine Testimony, but withall represents the Truths revealed by that Testimony, with all that excellency and suitableness that there is in them, that by the most agreeable, yet effectual influence of the spirit upon the soul, it cheerfully embraceth that Truth which is revealed, and cordially yields up its felf in obedience to it. This is the Divine faith which the Scriture acquaints us with, and not fuch a one as merely believes the truth of a Divine Testimony; and as to the production of this faith, I acknowledge mere rational evidence to be infufficient, because they proceed in two very different ways; the one is to fatisfie mens minds in the truth of the doctrine, the other is to bring them effectually to adhere unto it. The afferting of the one therefore doth no more tend to destroy the other, than the faying that a Telescope will help us to discover very much of the heavenly bodies, doth imply that a blind man may fee them, them, if he makes but use of them. Although therefore the natural man cannot savingly apprehend the things of God, yet there may be so much rational evidence going along with Divine revelation, that supposing reason to be pure, and not corrupted and steeped in sence as now it is, it would discover spiritual evidence to be the most real and convincing evidence. Thus far we have proved, That where there is any infallible Temony, there is sufficient rational evidence going along with it, to make it appear that it is from God.

CHAP. IX.

The rational evidence of the Truth of Christian Religion from Miracles.

The possibility of miracles appears from God and providence; the evidence of a Divine Testimony by them. God alone can really alter the course of nature. The Devil's power of working miracles considered. Of Simon Magus, Apollonius. The cures in the Temple of Æsculapius at Rome, &c. God never works miracles, but for some particular end. The particular reasons of the miracles of Christ. The repealing the Law of Mofes, which had been setled by miracles. Why Christ checked the Pharisees for demanding a sign, when himself appeals to his miracles. The power of Christ's miracles on many who did not throughly believe. Christ's miracles made it evident that he was the Messias, because the predictions were fulfilled in him. Why John Baptist wrought no miracles. Christ's miracles necessary for the overthrow of the Devil's Kingdom. Of the Demoniacks and Lunaticks in the Gospel, and in the Primitive Church. The power of the name of Christ over them largely proved by several Testimonies. The evidence thence of a Divine Power in Christ. Of counterfeit dispossessions. Of miracles wrought among Infidels. Of the future state of the Church. The necessity of the miracles of Christ, as to the propagation of Christian Religion: that proved from the condition of the publishers, and the success of the Doctrine. The Apostles knew the hazard of their employment; before Hh 2 they they entred on it. The boldness and resolution of the Apostles notwithstanding this, compared with heathen Philosophers. No motive could carry the Apostles through their imployment, but the truth of their Doctrine; not seeking the honour, profit or pleasure of the world. The Apostles evidence of the truth of their Doctrine lay in being eye-witnesses of our Saviour's miracles and resurrection. That attested by themselves; their sufficiency thence for preaching the Gospel. Of the nature of the doctrine of the Gospel; contrariety of it to natural inclinations. Strange success of it, notwithstanding it came not with human power: No Christian Emperour, till the Gospel universally preached. The weakness and simplicity of the instruments which preached the Gospel. From all which the great evidence of the power of miracles is proved.

Sect. 1. Hyp. 5.

F all rational evidences which tend to confirm the truth of a divine Testimony, there can be none greater than a power of working miracles for confirmation that the Testimony which is revealed is infallible. The possibility of a power of miracles cannot be questioned by any who affert a Deity and a Providence; for by the same power that things were either at first produced, or are still conserved (which is equivalent to the other) the course of nature may be altered, and things caufed which are beyond the power of inferiour causes: For though that be an immutable Law of Nature as to Physical beings, that every thing remains in the course and order wherein it was set at the Creation; yet that only holds till the same power which fet it in that order shall otherwise dispose of it; granting then the possibility of miracles, the subject of this Hypothesis is, That a power of miracles is the clearest evidence of a divine Testimony, which will appear from these following considerations.

God alone can really alter the course of nature. I speak not of such things which are apt only to raise admiration in us because of our unacquaintedness with the causes of them, or manner of their production, which are thence called wonders, much less of mere juggles and impostures, whereby the eyes of men are deceived; but I speak of such things as are in themselves either contrary to, or above the course of nature, i.e. that order which is established in the universe. The Devil no question may, and doth often deceive the world, and may by the subtilty

fubtilty and agility of his nature, perform such things as may amuse the minds of men, and sometimes put them to it, to find a difference between them and real miracles, if they only make their senses judges of them. And such kind of wonders, though they are but sparingly done, and with a kind of secrecy (as though they were consulting with Cataline about the burning Rome vet the Devil would have some (especially when Ignorance and Superstition are Ascendants) to keep up his interest in the world. Or elfe, when he is like to be dispossessed and thrown out of all, he then tries his utmost to keep as many to him as may be; thus when the Spirit of God appeared in the miracles of our Saviour and his Apostles and the Primitive Church, he then conjured up all the infernal Powers to do something parallel, to keep possession of his Idolatrous Temples; as long as he could. Thus we find Simon Magus dogging the Apostles (as it were) at the heels, that by his Magick he might stagger the faith of people concerning the miracles wrought by the Apostles: after him Apollonius appeared upon the Stage; but his wonders are such pitifull things, compared with those wrought by Christ or his Apostles, that it could be nothing but malice in Hierocles to mention him in competition with Christ. But those things which seem a great deal more considerable than either of these, were, The cure of a blind man by Vespasian in Agypt, mentioned by Tacitus and Sueton. Vesp. Suetonius, wherein there was a palpable imitation of our Sa-cap. 7. viour's curing the blind man in the Gospel; for the man told Vespasian, restiturum oculos si inspuisset, that he should receive his fight by his spittle; So Spartianus tells us of a woman that was cured of her blindness by kissing the knees of the Emperour Adrian; and Boxhornius hath produced an old Table in the Temple of Asculapius at Rome of several diseased persons that were cured there: A blind man in the time of Antoninus was cured by this Oracle; he must come to the Altar, and kneel there; from the right side he must turn to the left, and put five fingers upon the Aliar, and then lift up his hands and touch his eyes, and so was cured: Another called Lucius cured of the pain of bis side, by mixing the ashes of the Altar with the wine, and applying it to his side; another cured of spitting of bloud by the kernel of a pine-apple, and honey used three days; a fourth cured of Quest: Rome blindness by the bloud of a white Cock and honey used three days 9. 7.

upon his eyes. These are the most considerable of all the pretended miracles done about that time, when the noise of the Christian miracles were spread so far and done so frequently, that they challenged the Heathens again and again to bring forth any person possessed with a Devil, if he did not confess to them that he was a Devil, though he made the Heathens believe that he was a God, they were contented to leave their blood in the place.

Apol. c. 23.

For thus Tertullian speaks in his Apology to them: Edatur hic aliquis sub tribunalibus vestris, quem dæmone agi constet: jussus à quolibet Christiano lequi spiritus ille, tam se Dæmonem confitebitur de vero, quam alibi Deum de falso: æque producatur aliquis ex iis qui de Deo pati existimantur, qui aris inhalantes numen de nidore concipiunt, qui rustando curantur, qui anhelando profantur. Ista ipsa Virgo cælestis pluviarum pollicitatrix, iste ipse Asculapius Medicinarum demonstrator, alias de mortuturus scordii & denatii & Asclepiadoti subministrator, nisi se Damones confessi fuerint, Christiano mentiri non audentes, ibidem illius Christiani procacissimi sanguinem fundite. Quid isto opere manifestius, quid has probatione sidelius? simplicitas veritatis in medio est; virtus illi sua assistit, nihil suspicari licebit, magia aut aliqua fallacia fieri. Dictis non stetis, si oculi vestri & aures permiserint vobs. In these very daring words, we fee how the Christians appealed to their senses, even with the hazard of their own lives, that they would make even Afoulapius himself confess what he was, and by whose power all the cures were wrought upon the dreamers in his Temples. And for the manner of the Devils cures, the same Author explains it thus, Lædunt primo, dehinc remedia præcipiunt ad miraculum nova, sive contraria, post quæ desinunt lædere & curasse creduntur. They first possess the bodies themselves (as Demoniacks were common in those times) and affect it with various distempers, afterwards upon using the strange remedies prescribed by Æsculapius, they for sake their station, and the person is cured. And for the cures performed by the Emperours, those who consider what various artifices were about that time used to procure an opinion of Divinity in the Emperours, will not much wonder that fuch reports should be spread of them, or that any persons should feign these distempers to give themselves out to be cured by them. But granting somewhat wonderfull in these, what are they,

Apol. c. 22.

they, compared with those done by Christians? and who ever would lay down his life to attest any of them? So that though the Devil by his subtility may easily impose upon Spectators eyes, yet it was impossible for him by any power of his own to alter the course of nature, or produce any real miracle. For every true miracle is a production of something out of nothing (which cannot be done by less than an omnipotent arm) and that either in the thing it self, or the manner of producing it. In the thing it felf, when it is of that nature that it cannot be produced by any second causes, as the raising of the dead; in the manner of doing it, when though the thing lies within the possibility of second causes, yet it is performed without the help of any of them, as in the cure of diseases without any use of means, by a word speaking, the touch of a garment, &c. Now that all those miracles which were wrought in confirmation of the Christian doctrine were such true and proper miracles, will be discovered afterwards.

God never alters the course of nature, but for some very considerable end. For otherwise when he did it, it would not be taken notice of, nor thought to be an alteration of the order of nature, but only some rare contingencies which lie hid in the order of causes, but only break out at some times: of which fort are all those things which the ignorant world is apt to account as Prodigies. Of all which rare contingencies in nature, I fay, as the Roman Orator doth, Si quod raro fit, id portentum putan- Cicero de Div. dum est, sapientem esse portentum est, sæpius enim mulum pe-1.2. perisse arbitror, quam sapientem fuisse. If all rare contingencies be accounted prodigies, a Wise man is certainly the greatest Prodigy. But these are quite of another nature from true miracles, which are immediately produced by a divine Power, and intended for a confirmation of some divine Testimony. There are now feveral weighty reasons which might make miracles necessary in the time of our Saviour, as an evidence of his Divine Authority and Power.

That he came to take down that way of worship which had been at first settled by a power of miracles in Moses. God would not be so much wanting to the fauth of that people which had received their Law by figns and wonders from Heaven, but that there should be as strong an evidence given to them, that the fulness of time was come when that dispensation was to

Sect. 2:

30

have an end, and to give place to one more perfect, which was to be established instead of it. Upon which account the fews might rationally enquire after a fign where any new revelation was discovered, which might null the obligation of any former Lang: and when they enquire so much after a sign, our Saviour doth not reject the enquiry as in it felf unreasonable, but as made in an unreasonable manner; for they would not be contented with the miracles which our Saviour wrought. which fufficiently manifested a Divine power; but all that they defired was, a fign from beaven, i. e. fuch as were done at the Matth. 12. 38. giving of the Law, the thundring and lightnings there; or.

16. 1. as the raining of Manna in the Wilderness; now our Saviour justly checks this demand as importune and impudent; partly as knowing upon what account they asked it, merely to tempt him; and not out of any real defire of satisfaction; and partly because of that abundant evidence which was given in the miraculous cures which were wrought by him, which were more suitable to that design of doing good in the world, than all the Thunderclaps on Mount Sinai were; neither were the people in a condition to be fed by Manna as they were in the wilderness, God graciously suiting the discoveries of his power to the peculiar advantages of the people which they were made to, and the dispensation they ushered in. Those terrible figns at Mount Sinai being very furtable to the severity and rigeur of the Law: and the gracious miracles of our Saviour. to the sweetness and grace of the Gospel. And on this account our Saviour charged the fews with hypocrifie, in requiring a onusion, as semething above Nvapus, a prodigy rather than a mi-

Matth. 12.39. racle; An evil and adulterous generation seeketh after a sign, and there shall no fign be given it but that of the Prophet Tonas, i. e. this people which are so far from the faith of Abrabam, (and therefore are supposititious Children) that no miracles which I doe, will convince them, but they feek only to have their bumours gratified more than their faith confirmed by some prodigy from Heaven, shall not by me be thus gratified; but having done enough already to persuade them, if they had any beart to believe, instead of a fign from Heaven, they shall have only one from the Earth, and that not so much intended for the conversion of such wilfull Unbelievers, as for the testifying my Innocency to the world, viz. his resurrection from

the dead. And so elsewhere when the Fews demand a sign, it was upon the doing of that, which if they had attended to, had been a sufficient sign to them, viz. his driving the buyers Joh. 2. 18. and sellers out of the Temple: Which being a thing permitted by the Sanhedrin and the Priests, how could they think so mean a person, in appearance, as our Saviour was, could ever have effected it, had it not been for a Divine Majesty and Power which appeared in him? It was not then the expectation of miracles which our Saviour rebuked in the fews, but being unsaisfied with the kind and nature of our Saviour's miracles. It was their hypocrifie and unbelief which Christ condemned, notwithstanding the frequent miracles which he wrought among them: For we plainly find our Saviour very often appealing to his miracles as the evidences of 10.25. his Divine Commission: If I had not done the works among Joh. 15.240 them, which no man else did, they had not had sin, i. e. in not believing me. Whereby Christ both sets forth the necessity of his working miracles in order to the conviction of the world, and the greatness of the miracles which he wrought; he did those no man else had done, no not Moses and Elias, in curing all manner of diseases by the word of his mouth; and those miracles which they had done, he exceeded them in the manner of doing them. Moses fed them with bread from Heaven, but Christ multiplied on earth some few loaves and fishes, to the feeding of many thousands: Elias indeed raised one from the dead; but Christ raised more, and one after he had been four days in the grave. And upon this very evidence of our Saviour's miracles we find many believing on him. And even of those who were not so far wrought upon as to become followers of Christ, as the only Messias, yet we find them so far Joh. 1. 49. perswaded by the power of his miracles, that they looked upon 2. 11. him as a great Prophet, or one that was fent from God: So Nicodemus, who came first to Christ more as a rational enquirer than a believer, yet we see he was persuaded that he was a teacher come from God, because no man could do the miracles which Joh. 3. 2. Christ did, unless God were with him. And before him many of the Ferus at Ferusalem believed in his name when they saw the miracles which he did; yet these persons Christ would not trust himself with, because he knew their hearts were not subdued Joh. 2. 23. to his doctrine, though their understandings were convinced by

Joh. 7. 31.

not on him as the Mellias, yet it is faid they believed on him on the account of his miracles. And many of the people believed on him, and (aid, When Christ cometh, will be do more miracles than these which this man hath done? Although herein they were most unreasonable in believing the evidence, and not the truth attested by it, in believing Christ to be one fent from God by his miracles, and yet not believing him to be the Messias, which was the thing attested by them. Not that mere miracles would prove the person to be the Messias who did them, but the miracles proved the testimony to be Divine; now that which Christ delivered to them as a Divine Testimony, was his being the Messias, and therefore by the tame reason they believed him to be one sent from God, they ought to have believed him to be the Messias; for one sent from God could never fallifie in the main of his mellage, as this was of our Saviour's preaching. And hence it is observable our Saviour did not shew forth his Divine power till he entred upon his office of preaching, thereby making it appear he intended this as the great evidence of the truth of the dostrine which he preached to them. And herein the blind man in the Gospel saw more truth and reason than the whole Court of Sankedrin, before which in probability he was convented about his cure by Christ; for when they sought to get something out of him in disparagement of our Saviour's person and miracle, he sharply and roundly tells them, when they faid they knew God spake to Moses, but for this fellow, we

Joh. 9.29, 30. know not from whence he is. Why herein, saith he, is ver. 33.

Ver. 31.

a marvellous thing, that ye know not from whence he is, and yet he hath opened mine eyes. If this man were not of God. be could do nothing; (as though he had faid) is it not plain that this man is imployed by God in the world by the miracles which he doth? for otherwife God would not fo readily affift him in doing fuch great works; for we know that God heareth not sinners: but if any man be a worshipper of God, and doth his will, him he heareth; i. e if this man pretended a Commission from Heaven fally (whereby he would be the greatest of sinners) can we think God would so miraculoully affift him? but we know by our Law, if one comes with a Commission from God, and draw men not to Idolatry ..

God is present with, and we are bound to believe him. And for this very miracle, or curing one born blind, was the like ever heard of before? did ever Moles or the Prophets do it? Thus we fee what strong rational evidence there was in this miracle of Christ in the judgment of this blind man, which he uttered with so much reason before the Court of Sanhedrin, when he knew how like he was to be excommunicated for it; and vet this very person was as yet ignorant that Christ was the true Messas, as appears by the seguel of the Chapter; Ver. 36. but upon Christ's revelation of himself to him, he presently Ver. 38. believed on him. How strangely irrational were the fews then in rejecting our Saviour when his miracles not only exceeded those of Moses both in number and quality; but which was more, they saw themselves the miracles which Christ did, but they received those of Moses only upon the credit of their Fathers! And from the frength of the evidence arising from the power of miracles it is that St. Peter tells the promiscuous Assembly, Act. 2. 22. That Jesus of Nazareth was a man approved of God among them, by miracles, wonders and signs, which God did by him in the midst of them, as they themselves also knew. He appeals to their own knowledge, which he would not certainly have done, had it not been in a case beyond all dispute among them. Which was a thing so notorious among them, that we find the Pharifees themselves confessing it, What do we? For this man doth many miracles: Joh. 11.47. Now then in a Nation whose religion had been established by miracles, and the certainty of the truth of it, among those who then professed it, did depend so much upon the constant credit which the report of the miracles done at the fetling of their Law had among them; what could be a more rational convincing way of proceeding, than for our Saviour to manifest by a greater power of miracles in himself the undoubted credentials of his commission from Heaven; and that he was the true Messias, which was foretold by their own most sacred and authentical records? Which will appear more, Because the power of miracles did evidently declare that he

Because the power of miracles did evidently declare that he was the very person promised. For if the exact correspondency of the event to the predictions in a Nation owning

Sect. 3.

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them as Divine, be an undoubted evidence that they are exactly fulfilled, our Saviour was most certainly the person so often spoken of in the Old Testament. For many of the Prophecies of the Old Testament concerning the Messias, if they were not fulfilled in Christ, in the conditions the Fews have been in fince their differsion, (which fell out exactly according to the prediction of Christ) it is impossible they should be fulfilled at all. So that either the predictions must lose their divine authority, or they must be accomplished in our blessed Sa-C. Judaos, c. 13. viour. For as Tertullian sharply says to the Jews, Redde sta-

tum Judææ quem Christus inveniat, & alium contende venire; Let the people of the fews be in their former condition, and then plead for a Messias to come. For can any thing be more plain than that the Messias was to be born in Bethlebem of Judea? but where is that now, and how long fince the Fews enjoyed any civil Polity there? what is become of the fecond Temple, in the time of which the desire of all Nations should come? Is not Ferusalem already destroyed, and the oblation there long since ceased, which was to come to pass so soon after the Messias, and did accordingly? Is not the Scepter yet departed from Judah, and the Lawgiver from between his feet, and is not Shiloh yet come? What strange unintelligible weeks were those of Daniel, if they were extended to so indefinite a space of time as the Fews pretend? and if indefinite, what certain ground could from thence be gathered of any time wherein their accomplishment was to be expected? but not to expatiate on those things which are already so largely proved beyond all possibility of contradiction, by the ancient and modern learned Writers against the Fews: To insist therefore on our present business; are not the Prophecies concerning the miracles which the Messias should work, exactly fulfilled in Christ? Then the eyes of the blind (hall be opened, and the ears of the deaf (hall be unstopped; then shall the lame man leap as an Hart, and the

tongue of the dumb shall sing. He must be a great stranger in

Ifa. 35. 5, 6.

the History of the New Testament that is to seek for an exact V. Grot in Joh. fulfilling of this Prophecy. Nay, and the Fewish Midrasch, 9. 32. upon Pfal. 146. 8. faith, that when Messias comes, be should open the eyes of the blind; and the Fews themselves often speak of the great miracles which the Messias should doe when he appears; and therefore out of their own mouths will they

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be condemned, when the miracles of Christ make it so evident that he was the true Messias. Hence when John Baptist sent his Disciples to Christ for them to be fully satisfied concerning him, Christ gives this answer to them; he bids them tell him, the blind receive their fight, and the lame walk, and the Lepers Matth. 11.5. are cleansed, and the deaf bear, and the dead are raised up.&c. as though the mentioning of these miracles was sufficient to make it appear to them who he was whom they came to enquire after. And therefore it is observable that John Baptist himself, though greater than the Prophets, nay, than whom there Mat. 11. 9,11. was not a greater born of women, by our Saviour's own Testimony; yet of him it is faid, that he wrought no miracle: of Joh. 10. 41. which no account can be given so probable and rational, as that God in his infinite wisdom was pleased so to order it, that the evidence of our Saviour's being the Messias might be made more clear by the miracles which he wrought; that the minds of people might not be distracted between John and Christ; he therefore reserved the glory of miracles wholly to the name of Christ, that there might be no pretence of competition between John and him.

Another reason of the necessity of miracles in our Saviour by way of rational evidence, is, the overthrowing the power and kingdom of the Devil in the world. For which purpose it is observable that the Devil had scarce ever greater power over the bodies of men as well as their fouls, than at that time; thence we read of such a multitude of demoniacks in the Go-(pel. For it feems very harsh to interpret those merely of Epileptical and Lunatick persons, both because the Samonicoulous, and Matth. 4-24. σεληνιαζόμθροι, and Segnolinei, are mentioned distinctly, and that it appears by the primitive Church afterwards how frequent it was to eject the Devil out of possessed persons. Nay, so far am I from thinking that the Demoniacks were mere Lunaticks, that I rather think with Vollius that the Lunaticks were De Idolat. 1. 2. truly Demoniacks, only they were not constantly under the c. 19. power of the Devil, but as their paroxisms returned upon them, the Devil loving to fish in such troubled waters. And thence Mat. 17. 14. the same person is called a Lunatick in one place, who is cal- Luke 9. 39. led a Demoniack in another; because he did ruere in principiis lunationum, as the Arabick version expresseth it; or as Rusticus Elpidius more fully explains it,

Sect. 4. 3.

Zib. 5.

Repserat in medium rabies borrenda furoris Dæmonis afflatu, propria qui peste nocious Allidit captas fædo discrimine mentes, Menstrua deciduos cum Luna recolligit ignes.

Matt. 8. 28.

Theophylast is of opinion, that the Jews in the time of our Saviour supposed, that the souls of dead men became Damons, and thence we read in Scripture of the Demoniacks among the Tombs: but it is far more probable which Grotius conceives, that the Fews were of opinion, that the fouls of dead men did hover up and down about their bodies, and that these were so long under the Devils power, which many of the Fews to this day believe and make use of the instance of the Pythonis raising Samuel; on which account the Devils to favour an opinion so advantageous to their interest, might appear with greater terror and fury about their burying places. as we see they did in those possessed persons. But on whatever account it was, we find it evident that about the time of our Saviour's appearance, and some time after, the truly Every sulvoi were very frequent; whether it were that the Devil by fuch frequent possessions of persons, and making them to do fuch frange things, might thereby endeavour to invalidate the evidence of our Saviour's miracles (from whence it is probable the Pharisees raised their calumny, that Christ did miracles by Beelzebub, because they saw so many strange appearances caused by possessed persons) or whether it were through the admirable providence of God, which might give Satan the greater liberty at that time, on purpose to beighten the glory of our Saviour in dispossessing of him, and thereby to give the bigbest rational evidence, that his power was of God, which tended so much to the destruction of the Kingdom of Satan.

Seit. 5.

And hence the Primitive Christians did so much triumph, and as it were infult over the Devil where-ever they found him, making him to remove his lodgings from possessed persons, by a writ of ejection from the name of Christ. Thence Origen rationally concludes that Christ had his power given him from above, because at his very name the Devils forfook the Orige Celf. 1.3. bodies which they had possessed, Ei & un Deo Dev no auto dol more

σύςασις, εκ αν κή δαίμονες τω ονόμαπ αυτε απαγγελλομβώμ μόνον ELMOVIES sixoves ล่งอาณ์อยา ลักด์ รับ เล้า ลบักษ์ กองอุนยมผู้แบ. And he elsewhere tells us, that even the meanest fort of Christians without any ceremony, but merely by their prayers, did ordinarily eject the Devil out of mens bodies: is shi may & is is at a to this to we for Lib. 7. τησι παρισώσης τ εν τω λόγω χρισε χαρί Ο το τη δαιμόνων εύτελές κλαθενές, ε πάνως δεόμουν πρός το ήπηθηναι κλείζαν τως ξελθείν άπο Yumis av Sewore ni ownel @ ठ०० मा कि में Avare in दें homenis mee of risew; ano Seizen. Ordinary Christians, faith he, most commonly do this, the Grace of Christ by its word thereby discovering the contemptibleness and infirmity of the Devils, that in order to their ejection they did not so much as want any learned or experienced Christian. And for this they appeal to the Heathens themselves, as appears not only by the challenge of Tertullian already mentioned, but by the Testimony of almost all of them who have writ against the Heathens in vindica- P. 31. ed. Our. tion of the Christian Religion. Thence Minutius Felix, Hec omnia scunt plerique, pars vestrum, ipsos dæmonas de semetipsis confiteri, quoties à nobis tormentis verborum, & orationis incendiis de corporibus exiguntur. Ipse Saturnus & Serapis, & Jupiter, & quicquid dæmonum colitis, vieti dolore quod funt eloquuntur, nec utique in turpitudinem sui nonnullis præsertim vestrum assistentibus, mentiuntur. Ipsis testibus eos esse Dæmmas, de se verum confitentibus credite; adjurati enim per Deum verum & solum, inviti, miseri corporibus inhorrescunt; & v. exiliant statim, vel evanescunt gradatim, prout sides patientis adjuvat, aut gratia curantis aspirat. Can we now think the Devil should not only for sake his Tyranny over the bodies of men, but let go so advantageous a pillar of his tyranny over the consciences of men in Idolatrous worship, as the concealing himself was, had he not been forced to it by a power far greater than his own? So Cyprian ad Demetrianum, appeals to him being the Proconful of Africa, about the same thing (who had written sharply against the Christians) for speaking of the Devils whom they worshipped in their Idols. O si audire eos velles & videre, quando à nobis adju- Ad Demetr rantur & torquentur Spiritualibus flagris & verborum tor-S. 12. mentis de obsessis corporibus ejiciuntur, quando ejulantes & gementes voce humana, & potestate divina flagella & verbera sentientes, venturum judicium confitentur; veni & cognosce vera esse quæ dicimus: and a little after, videbis sub manu nostra

nostra stare vinctos, & tremere captivos, quos tu suspicis & veneraris ut Dominos. Did ever any of the Heathen Magicians (of which there were good store) extort such things from the Devils, as the Christians did, merely by their prayers, and invocations of the name of God and Christ? did they ever make them confess to be what they were, not only in possesfed bodies but in their Temples too? that was beyond the power of their Ephesian letters, or any of their Magical incantations. Did the Devils ever dread so much the name of Socrates or Aristides as they did that of God and of Christ ? Of which De justitia lib. Lactantius thus speaks, Quo audito tremunt, exclamant, & uri se verberarique testantur, & interrogati qui sint, quando venerint, quando in hominem irrepserint, confitentur sic extorti, & excruciati virtute divini numinis exulant; propter bæc verbera & minas, sanctos & justos viros semper oderunt. And

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even Apollo himself at the name of Christ trembled as much as ever the Pythian Prophetess did in her greatest furies; so Prudentius tells us.

Apot heef.

Torquetur Apollo Nomine percussus Christi, nec fulmina verbi Ferre potest; agitant miserum tot verbera lingua, Quot laudata Dei resonant miracula Christi.

relig.

To these we may add what Firmicus saith to the same pur-De errore prof. pose, Ecce Dæmon est quem colis ; cum Dei & Christi ejus nomen audierit, contremiscit, & ut interrogantibus nobis respondeat trepidantia verba, vix se colligit; adhærens homini laceratur, uritur, vapulat, & statim de commissis sceleribus confitetur. By which Testimonies it appears what power over Satan, when he was in his Kingdom, the Christians by the power of Christ had; not as though the bare name of Christ had so great an efficacy in the ejection of Devils, as Origen feems to be of opinion (in a discourse about the efficacy of names, unworthy of so great a Philosopher) but that God might manifest to the world the truth that was contained in that name, he did give a power to fuch as made use of it, of working miracles by And thence we read in Scripture, that some who were not throughly Christians, but yet professed the truth of the Gospel, and that what they did was for the bonour of Christ, had a power of casting out Devils and doing many wonderful things

L. I. c. Celf.

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through his name.

By these and many other testimonies which might be pro- Sett. 6. duced out of the Primitive Church, we find an exact accomplishment of our Saviour's promise to his Disciples when he took his leave of them: And these signs shall follow them that Mark 16. 17. believe, In my name shall they cast out Devils, &c. This power then in the Primitive Church had a twofold argument in it. both as it was a manifestation of the truth of the predictions of our Saviour, and as it was an evidence of the Divine power of Christ, when his name so long after his ascension had so great a command over all the infernal spirits; and that so evidently, that at that time when the Christians did as it were Tyrannize over Satan so in his own territories, yet then the greatest of his Magicians had no power to hurt the bodies of the Chrifians, which is a thing Origen takes much notice of. For when Celsus saith from Diogenes Agyptius that Magick could only burt ignorant and wicked men, and had no power over Philosophers; Origen replies, first, that Philosophy was no such charm against the power of Magick, as appears by Mæragenes who writ the story of Apollonius Tyaneus, the famous Magician and Philosopher, who therein mentions how Euphrates and an Epicurean (in a fluis oixogos, no vulgar Philosophers) were catched by the Magick of Apollonius, (and although Philosiratus disown this History of Maragenes as fabulous, yet he that thinks Philostratus for that, to be of any greater credit, is much deceived, of whom Lud. Vives gives this true character, De trad. disc. that he doth magna Homeri mendacia majoribus mendaciis cor- 1.5. rigere, mend one hole and make three,) but, faith Origen, as to the Christians, this is undoubtedly true: DiaBelaisue on in hais Cont. Celf. 1. 6. में रमें माहित किन्त्रे कि कार के कि है। उन के प्रा प्रशासमान प्रांत के वि के दिन है कि है . 302. न्यंग अस्त्यमार्थणमा अस्तेण, में विष्णमा असे में विश्वना में में कर्षिया **Βείσαις ή ευχαίς συνεχέτερον κή δεόντως νυκτός κή πμέρας χρώμθροι, έτε** μαγεία έτε δαιμονίοις είσιν άλωτοι. This, saith he, we are most certain of, and have found it by experience true, that those who according to the principles of Christianity do worship God over all. through Jesus, and do live according to the Gospel, being constant in their folemn prayers night and day, are not obnoxious to the power of any Magick or Devils what soever. Now then if the Devil who had then so much power over others, had none upon the true followers of Christ; and if instead of that they had so great a commanding power over the Devil even in things

Kk

which

which tended most to his disadvantage, not only distodging him out of bodies, but out of his Idolatrous Temples; what can be more evident, than that this power which was so efficacious for the overthrowing the Kingdom of Satan, must needs be far greater than the power of Satan is? For it is an undoubted Maxim in natural reason, That what-ever is put out of its former place by force and violence, is extruded by something stronger than its felt; for if the force on either side were equal, there could be no dispossessing of either; if any thing then be cast out of its former possession unwillingly, it is an undeniable proof there was some power greater than his who was dispossessed. Now we cannot conceive, if there be such malignant spirits, as by many undeniable proofs it is evident there are, that they should willingly quit their possessions to such a dostrine which tends to the unavoidable ruine of their interest in the world; if then the tower of this dostrine hath overthrown the Devil's Kingdom in the world, where-ever it hath been truly entertained, it must necessarily follow, that this power is far above the power of any damned spirits. Now what folly and madness was it in the Heathens to worship those for Gods, which they could not but fee, if they would open their eyes, were under fo great flavery to a power above them, which could make them confess what was most to their disadvantage in the presence of their great adorers?

Sect. 7.

Neither ought the many counterfeits and impostures which have been in the world in this kind since the establishment of Christian Religion (among the advancers of particular interests and designs) make us suspect the truth of those things which were done in the first Ages of the Church of Christ. For, first, it stands to the greatest reason, that the strongest arguments for the truth of a Religion ought to be fetched from the ages of its first appearance in the world; if then the evidence be undoubted as to those first times, we ought to embrace our Religion as true, what-ever the impostures have been among those who have apparently gone aside from that purity and simplicity of the Gospel, which had so great power. Then, secondly, if all that hath been done in this kind of ejecting Devils, where Christianity is owned, be acknowledged for impostures: one of these two things must be supposed as the ground of it: either that there was no such thing as a real possession by the Devil.

vil, or else there was no such thing as a dispossessing him; If the first, then hereby will be seen a confirmation of our former argument, that where Christianity is owned, by the power of that, the Devil is more curbed and restrained, than where it is not, or else is much over-run with ignorance and superstition. Of the latter, the ages of the Christian Church, from the 10th Century to the beginning of the 16th Current, are a clear evidence; Of the first, all those who have been conversant in the places where Paganism or gross Idolatry do yet reign, will bring in their creditable testimonies, how tyrannical the power of the Devil is yet among them. If it be not so then, where carefull endeavours have been used for retrieving the ancient purity of Christian doctrine and morship, we ought to impute it to the power of him who is stronger than Satan, who whereever he comes to dwell, doth disposses him of his former habitations. If the second then be entertained as the ground of concluding all things as impostures, which are accounted dispossessions of Satan, viz. that he never is really dispossessed; then it must either be said, that where he is once seized, there is no possibility of ejecting him; which is to fay, that the Devil hath an absolute and infinite power, and that there is no power greater than his, which is to own him for God; or else that God suffers him to tyrannize where and how he will, which is contrary to Divine providence, and the care God takes of the world, and of the good of mankind; or else, lastly, that those persons who pretend to do it, are not fuch persons who are armed so much with the power of Christ, nor possessed with such a due spirit of the Gospel, which hath command over these infernal spirits. And this in the cases pretended by the great Juglers and Impostures of the Christian world, the Popish Priests have been so notorious, that none of their own party of any great faith or credit would stand to vouch them. And we have this impregnable argument against all such Impostures, that the matters which they by fuch actions would give an evidence to, being so vastly different from, if not in some things diametrically opposite to the first delivery and design of the Christian faith, it is inconsistent with the way used for the confirmation of Christian Religion in the first publishing of it, to attest the truth of fuch things by any real miracles: For so it would invalidate the great force of the evidences of the truth of Christianity, if Kk 2 the

the same argument should be used for the proving of that which in the judgment of any impartial person was not delivered, when the truth of the doctrine of Christ was confirmed by so many and uncontrouled miracles. But hereby we fee what unconceivable prejudice hath been done to the true primitive doctrine of the Gospel; and what stumbling-blocks have been laid in the way of considerative persons, to keep them from embracing the truly christian faith, by those who would be thought the infallible directors of men in it, by making use of the broad-seal of Heaven (fet only to the truth of the Scriptures) to confirm their unwritten and superstitious ways of worship. For if I once fee that which I looked on as an undoubted evidence of Divine power, brought to attest any thing directly contrary to Divine revelation; I must either conclude that God may contradict himfelf by fealing both parts of a contradiction, which is both blasphemous and impossible; or that that society of men which own fuch things, is not at all tender of the honour of Christian doctrine, but feeks to fet up an interest contrary to it, and matters not what disadvantage is done to the grounds of Religion by fuch unworthy pretences; and which of these two is more rational and true, let every one's conscience judge. And therefore it is much the interest of the Christian World to have all fuch frauds and impostures discovered, which do so much differvice to the Christian Faith, and are fuch secret fomenters of Atheism and Infidelity. But how far that promise of our Saviour, That they which believe in his name, shall cast out Devils, and do many miracles, may extend even in these last ages of the world to such generous and primitive-spirited Christians, who out of a great and deep sense of the truth of Christianity and tenderness to the souls of men, should go among Heathens and Infidels to convert them only to Christ (and not to a fecular interest, under pretence of an infallible head) is not here a place fully to enquire. I confess I cannot see any reason why God may not yet for the conviction of Infidels, employ such a power of miracles, although there be not such necessity of it, as there was in the first propagation of the Gospel, there being some evidences of the power of Christianity now, which were not so clear then, (as the over-throwing the Kingdom of Satan in the world; the prevailing of Christianity, notwithstanding force used against it; the recovery of it from amidst all.

Mat. 16. 17.

all the corruptions which were mixed with it; the confent of those parties in the common foundations of Christianity, which yet disagree from each other with great bitterness of spirit,) though I fay it be not of that necessity now, when the Scriptures are conveyed to us in a certain uninterrupted manner; yet God may please out of his abundant provision for the satisfaction of the minds of men, concerning the truth of Christian doctrine, to employ good men to do fomething which may manifest the power of Christ to be above the Devil's, whom they worship. And therefore I should far sooner believe the relation of the miracles of Xaverius and his Brethren, employed in the conversion of Insidels, than Lipsius his Virgo Hallensis and Asprecollis, could it but be made evident to me that the design of those persons had more of Christianity than Popery in it; that is, that they went more upon a design to bring the souls of the Infidels to Heaven, than to enlarge the authority and jurisdiction. of the Roman Church.

But what-ever the truth of those miracles, or the design of Sect, & those persons were, we have certain and undoubted evidence of the truth of those miracles, whereby Christianity was first propagated, and the Kingdom of Satan over-thrown in the world; Christ thereby making it appear that his power was greater than the Devil's, who had possession, because he over-came him, Luk. 11.21.23. took from him all his armour wherein he trusted, and divided his spoils; i.e. dispossessed him of mens bodies, and his Idolatrous Temples, Glenced his Oracles, nonplust his Magicians, and at last, when Christianity had overcome by suffering, wrested the worldly Power and Empire out of the Devil's hands, and employed it against bimself. Neither may we think, because since. that time the Devil hath got some ground in the world again by the large spread of Mahometism, and the general corruptions in the Christian world, that therefore the other was no argument of Divine power; because the truth of Christianity is not tied to any particular places; because such a falling away hath been foretold in the Scripture, and therefore the truth of them is proved by it, and because God himself hath threatned that those who will not receive the truth in the love of it, shall be given up to strong delusions. Doth not this then in stead of abating the strength of the argument, confirm it more, and that nothing is fallen out in the Christian world, but what was.

it? But we are neither without some fair hopes even from that Divine revelation which was fealed by uncontrolled evidence, that there may be yet a time to come when Christ will recover his Churches to their pristine purity and simplicity; but withall, I think we are not to measure the future felicity of the Church by outward splendor and greatness (which too many fo strongly fansie) but by a recovery of that true spirit of Christianity which breathed in the first ages of the Church. what-ever the outward condition of the Church may be: For if worldly greatness, and ease, and riches, were the first impairers of the purity of Christian Religion, it is hard to conceive how the restoring of the Church of Christ to its true glory, can be by the advancing of that, which gives so great an occasion to pride and sensuality, which are so contrary to the design of Christian Religion; unless we suppose men free from those corruptions, which continual experience still tells the world the Rulers as well as Members of the Christian society are subject to. Neither may that be mondered at, when fuch unevenness of parts is now discovered in the great Luminaries of the world, and the Sun himself is found to have his macula, as though the Sun had a purple Fever, or as Kir-Propyl. Agonif. cher expresseth it, Ipse Phabus, qui rerum omnium in universo naturæ Theatro aspectabilium longe pulcherrimus omnium opinione est habitus, hoc seculo tandem fumosa facie, ac infecto vultu maculis prodiit; diceres eum variolis laborare senescentem: I speak not this as though an outward flourishing condition of • the Church were inconsistent with its purity; for then the way to refine it, were to throw it into the flames of persecution; but that the advancement of the flourishing condition of the Church, is not merely by outward pomp and grandeur, and that the purity of the Church is not inconsistent with a state of outward difficulties, which the experience of the Primitive Church gives an irrefragable demonstration of. Thus much may serve to shew the necessity of a power of miracles, conjoyned with the Christian doctrine, to manifest the truth of it by overthrowing the Kingdom of that great Antichrist the Devil, who had usurped so much Tyranny over the World.

ad Oedipum, cap. 2.

I.

2.

F.

The last reason why a power of miracles was so necessary for confirming the truth of the Gospel, is, because the Gospel was to be propagated over the world without any other rational evidence than was contained in the miracles wrought for the confirmation of it. Now the admirable success which this doctrine found in the world, considering all the circumstances of it, do make it clear what certainty there was that the miracles which were wrought were true, and they were certain evidences that the doctrine attested by them was from God. Now this will appear from these two things:

That no rational account can be given why the Apostles should undertake to publish such a dostrine, unless they had been undoubtedly certain that the Dostrine was true, and they had sufficient

evidence to persuade others to believe it.

That no satisfactory account can be given, considering the nature of the doctrine of Christ, and the manner of its propagation, why it should meet with so great acceptance in the world, had-there not been such convincing evidence as might fully persuade men of

the truth of it.

I begin with the first, from the publishers of this doctrine in the world. All that I here require by way of a Postulatum or supposition, are only these two things, which no man right in his wits I suppose will deny: 1. That men are so far rational agents, that they will not set upon any work of moment and difficulty, without sufficient grounds inducing them to it; and by so much the greater the work is, the more sure and stedfast had the grounds need to be which they proceed upon. 2. That the Apostles or first Publishers of the Christian Doctrine were not men distracted, or bereft of their wits, but acted by principles of common sense, reason and understanding, as other men in the world do: Which if any one should be so far beside his wits as to question, if he have but patience and understanding enough to read and consider those admirable writings of theirs which are conveyed to us by as certain uninterrupted a Tradition as any thing in the world hath been, by that time he will fee cause to alter his judgment, and to fay that they are not mad, but speak the words of the greatest truth and soberness. These things fupposed, I now proceed to the proving of the thing in hand, which will be done by these three things; First, That the Apostles could not but know how hazardous an employment the preaching Origines Sacræ: Book II.

preaching of the Gospel would be to them. Secondly, That no motive can be conceived sufficient for them to undertake such an employment, but the infallible truth of the doctrine which they preached. Thirdly, That the greatest assurance they had themfelves of the truth of their Doctrine, was by being eye-witnesses of the miracles of Christ.

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First, That the Apostles could not but understand the hazard of their employment, notwithstanding which they cheerfully undertook it. That men armed with no external power, nor cried up for their wit and learning, and carrying a dostrine with them so contrary to the general inclinations of the world, having nothing in it to recommend it to mankind but the truth of it, should go about to perfuade the world to part with the Religion they owned, and was fetled by their Laws, and to embrace such a Religion as called them off from all the things they loved in this world, and to prepare themselves by mortification and felf-denial for another world, is a thing to humane reason incredible, unless we suppose them acted by a higher spirit than mankind is ordinarily acted by. For what is there fo desirable in continual reproaches and contumelies? what delight is there in racks and prisons? what agreeableness in flames and martyrdoms to make men undergo some, nay all of these rather than disown that dostrine which they came to publish? Yet these did the Apostles cheerfully undergo in order to the conversion of the world to the truth of that dostrine which they delivered to it. And not only so, but though they did forefee them, they were not discouraged from this undertaking by it. I confess, when men are upon hopes of profit and interest in the world, engaged upon a defign which they promife themfelves impunity in, having power on their fide, though afterwards things should fall out contrary to their expediation, such persons may die in such a cause, because they must, and some may carry it out with more resolution, partly through an innate fortitude of spirit, heightned with the advantages of Religion, or an Enthusiastick temper. But it is hard to conceive that such persons would have undertaken so hazardous an employment, if before-hand they had fore-feen what they must have under-gone for it. But now the Apostles did fore-know that bonds and imprisonment, nay death it felf must be undergone in a violent manner, for the fake of the doctrine which they they preached; yet notwithstanding all this, they go boldly and with resolution on with their work, and give not over because of any hardships and persecutions they met withall. One of the chiefest of them, St. Peter, and as forward as any in Joh. 21. 19 Preaching the Gospel, had the very manner of his death foretold him by Christ himself, before his Ascension; yet soon after we find him preaching Christ in the midst of those who had crucified him, and telling them to their faces the greatnes of their fin in it, and appealing to the miracles which Christ had done among them, and bidding them repent and be- Act. 2. 22,23, lieve in him whom they had crucified, if ever they would be faved: Act. 3. 14, 15, And this he did, not only among the people who gave their confent to the crucifying of Christ; but soon after, being ton- A&. 4. 5. vented together with John, before the Court of Sanhedrin (probably the very fame which not long before had fentenced Christ to death) for a miracle wrought by them, with what A& 4. 10, 12. incredible boldness doth he to their faces tell them of their murdering Christ; and withall, that there was no other way to falvation but by him whom they had crucified! Be it known unto you all (faith Peter to the Sanhedrin) and to all the people of Israel, that by the name of Jesus Christ whom ye have crucified, whom God raised from the dead, even by him doth this man stand here before you whole. Neither is there salvation in any other: for there is none other name under Heaven given among men whereby we must be saved. What an heroick freedom of spirit appears in these words! what magnanimity and courage was there now in that person, who durst in the face of this Court tell them of their murther, and that there was no falvation but by him whom they had crucified! Well might they wonder at the boldness of the men, who feared not the fame death which they had so lately brought their Lord and Master to.

Neither was this fingly the case of Peter and fohn, but all Sect. 10. the rest of the Apostles undertook their work with the same resolution and preparation of Spirit to undergo the greatest hardship in the world for the sake of the truths they Preached. And accordingly as far as Ecclefiastical History can ascertain us of it, they did all but John (and that to make good the pre- Joh. 21. 22. diction of Christ) suffer violent deaths by the hands of those who persecuted them merely for their doctrine. And which is

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Matth. 10. 17, work, he told them before-hand of reproaches, perfecutions, all

most observable, when Christ designed them first of all for this

discour-

18, 21, 22, 28. manner of hardships, nay of death it self, which they must undergo for his fake. All that he gave them by way of encouragement, was, that they could only kill the body and not the foul, and therefore that they should fear him only who could destroy both body and soul in Hell; all the support they had, was, an expectation in another world, and that animated them to go through all the bardships of this. Where do we ever read of any such boldness and courage in the most knowing Philosophers of the Heathens? with what faintness and misgiving of Plat. Phad. mind doth Socrates speak in his famous discourse supposed to be made by him before his death? how uncertainly doth he speak of a state of immortality? and yet in all probability Plato fet it forth with all advantages imaginable. Where do we ever find that ever any of the great friends of Socrates, who were present at his death, as Phado, Cebes, Crito and Simmias, durst enter the Areopagus, and condemn them there for the murther of Socrates, though this would be far short of what the Apostles did? why were they not so charitable as to inform

> the world better of those grand truths of the being of God and immortality of Souls, if at least they were fully convinced of them themselves? Why did not Plato at least speak out, and tell the world the truth, and not disguise his discourses under feigned names, the better to avoid accusation and the fate of Socrates? how doth he mince his excellent matter, and plays as it were at Bo-peep with his Readers, sometimes appearing and then pulling in his horns again? It may not be an improbable conjecture that the death of Socrates was the foundation of the Academy: I mean of that cautelous doctrine of withholding affent, and being both pro and con, sometimes of this side, and sometimes of that: for Socrates his death hath made all his friends very fearfull of being too dogmatical. And Plato himself had too much riches, and withall too much of a Courtier in him to hazard the dear prison of his soul, viz. his body, merely for an ethereal vehicle. He had rather let his foul flutter up and down in terrestrial matter, or the cage it was pent up in, than hazard too violent an opening of it by the hands of the Areopagus. And the great Roman Orator, among the rest of Plato's sentiments, had learnt this too; for although in his.

discourses he hath many times sufficiently laid open the folly of the Heathen worship and Theology, yet he knows how to bring himself off safe enough with the people; and will be sure to be dogmatical only in this, That nothing is to be innovated in the Religion of a Commonwealth, and that the customs of our Ancestors are inviolably to be observed. Which principles, had they been true as they were safe for the persons who spake them, the Christian Religion had never gained any entertainment in the world; for where-ever it came, it met with this potent prejudice that it was looked on as an innovation, and therefore was shrewdly suspected by the Governours of Commonwealths, and the Preachers of it punished as factious and seditious persons; which was all the pretext the wife Politicians of the world had for their cruel and inhumane persecutions of such multitudes of peaceable and innocent Christians. Now when these things were fore-told by the Apostles themselves before their going abroad so plainly, that with the same faith they did believe the doctrine they Freached to be true, they must beheve that all these things should come to pass, what courage and magnanimity of spirit was it in them thus to encounter dangers and as it were court the flames? Nay and before the time was come that they must die, to feal the truth of their doctrine, their whole life was a continual peregrination, wherein they were as so many Jobs in pilgrimage, encountred with perils and dangers on every side; of which one of the most painfull and successfull, St. Paul, hath given in such a large in- 2 Cor. 6. 4,5, ventory of his perils, that the very reading of them were enough to undo a poor Epicurean Philosopher, and at once to spoil him of the two pillars of his happiness, the quietness of his mind and ease of his body. Thus we see what a hazardous imployment that was which the Apostles went upon, and that it was fuch as they very well understood the difficulty of before they fet upon it.

Secondly, we cannot find out any rational motive which could carry them through so hazardous an employment, but the full convictions of their minds of the undoubted truth and certainty of the doctrine which they delivered. We find before that no vulgar motives in the world could carry them upon that design which they went upon; Could they be led by ambition and vain-glory, who met with fuch reproaches where-ever they

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Sect. II.

pul. c. 5.

Origines Sacræ: went; and not only perfecutions of the tongue, but the sharper ones of the hands too? we never read of any but the Primitive Christians who were ambitious of being Martyrs, and thought long till they were in the flames: which made Arrius Antonius being Pro-consul of Asia, when Christians in multitudes befet his tribunal and thronged in to be condemned, fay to Terril ad son- them, & Senoi, el Dénere anol noner, nenures n Beoxus Exere. O miserable people, had not ye ways enough to end your lives at home, but ye must croud for an execution! This was a higher ambition by far than any of those mancipia gloria, those chamæleons that lived on the breath of applause, the Heathen I bi-Apolog. c. 47. losophers ever reached to, who were, as Tertullian expresseth it, homines gloriæ & eloquentiæ solius libidinosi, unsatiable thirsters after the honour and eloquence of the world; but the Spirit of a Christian did foar too high to quarry on so mean a prey. When the more sober Heathens had taken a stricter notice of the carriages and lives of the Preachers of the Gospel and all their genuine followers, they instead of the common and rude name of impostures, gave them a more civil title of Philoso-Apolog. c. 46. phers, and looked upon their doctrine as a sublimer kind of Philosophy, Non utique divinum negotium existimant sed magis Philosophia genus, as Tertullian tells us, because the Philosophers pretended so much to moral virtues which they saw the Christians so excellent in; but as Tertullian there replies, Nomen hoc Philosophorum Dæmonia non fugat, The Devil was never afraid of a Philosopher's beard, nor were diseases cured by the touch of a Philosophick pallium. There was something more Divine in Christians than in the grave Philosophers; and that not only in reference to their lives, and the Divine power which was feen in them, but in reference to the truth and certainty of their doctrine, it being a true character given of both, by that same excellent Writer in behalf of the Christians of his time: Veritatem Philosophi quidem affectant, possident autem Ad Nationes, l. Christiani; What the Philosophers desired only, the Christians

I. C. 4.

Spol. c. 46.

enjoy, which was Truth: and as he elsewhere more fully speaks, Mimice Philosophi affectant veritatem, & affectando corrumpunt, ut qui gloriam captant; Christiani eam necessario appetunt & integri prastant, ut qui saluti suæ curant. Truth is the Philosopher's mistress, which by courting he vitiates and corrupts, looking at nothing but his own glory: but truth is the Christian's

Matron ..

Matron, whose directions he observes and follows, because he regards no glory but that to come. And to let them further see what a difference there was between a Christian and a Philosopher, he concludes that discourse with these words, Quid adeo simile Philosophus & Christianus? Gracia Discipulus & cali? famæ negotiator & vitæ? verborum & factorum operator? rerum ædificator & destructor? amicus & inimicus erroris? veritatis interpolator & integrator? furator ejus & custos? As much distance (saith he) as there is between Greece and Heaven, between applause and eternal glory, between words and things, between building and destroying, between truth and error, between a plaziary and corrupter of truth, and a preserver and advancer of it; so much is there between a Philosopher and a Christian. The Heathens might suspect indeed some kind of affinity between the first Preachers of the Gospel and the ancient Sophists of Greece, because of their frequent going from place to place, and pretending a kind of Enthusiasm as they did: but as much difference as there is between a Knight-Errant and Hercules, between a Mountebank and Hippocrates, that and much greater there is between a Greek Sophist and an Apostle. Socrates in Plato's Euthydemus hath excellently discovered the vanity and futility of those persons under the persons of Euthydemus and Dionysodorus, and so likewise in his Protagoras; their intent was only like the Retiaries in the Roman Spectacles to catch their adversaries in a net; to intangle them with some captious question or other; but how vastly different from this was the design of the Apostles who abhorr'd those endless contentions which then were in the Heathen world; and came to shew them that Truth which was revealed with an intent of making them better men!

We see the Apostles were not carried forth by any mean and vulgar motives, neither did they drive on any private ends of their own; all that they minded was the promoting of the dostrine which they preached. Nay they accounted no hazards comparable with the advantage which the world enjoyed through the propagation of the Christian Religion. This shewed a truly noble and generous spirit in them which would not be hindred from doing the world good, though they found so bad entertainment from it; yea they rejoyced in their greatest sufferings which they underwent in so good a cause; wherein

Sect. 12:

those

Tertul. Apol. 6. 46.

those Primitive Christians who were the genuine followers of the Apostles, did so far imitate them, that, etiam damnati gratias agunt, they gave the Judges thanks that they thought them worthy to lose their lives in a cause which they had reason to triumph in, though they died for it. And when any of them were apprehended, they discovered so little fear of Minutius Felix. Punishment, Ut unum solummodo quod non ante fuerint paniteret. That nothing troubled them so much as that they had been Christians no sooner, as one of their number speaks. And when the Heathens usually scoffed at them and called them Sarmentitii and Semaxii because they were burned upon the Cross, one of them in the name of the rest answers, Hic est

Tertul. Ap. cap. habitus victoriæ nostræ, hæc palmata vestis, tali curru trium-

5 · phamus; The Cross was only their triumphant Chariot, which carried them sooner to Heaven. Now this courage and resolution of spirit which was seen in the first planters of Christianity in the world, made all ferious and inquisitive persons look more narrowly into those things, which made men flight so much the common bug-bears of humane nature, sufferings and death. Quis enim non contemplatione ejus concutitur, ad requi-Id. Ib. rendum quid intus in re su? quis non ubi requisivit accedit? ubi accessit pati exoptat? These sufferings made men enquire; this enquiry made them believe; that belief made them as willing to fuffer themselves as they had seen others do it before them. Thus it appeared to be true in them, Exquisition quague crudelitas, illecebra magis est sectæ; plures efficimur quoties metimur à vobis; semen est sanguis Christianorum; The cruelty of their enemies did but increase their number; the harvest of their pretended justice was but the feed-time of Christianity, and no feed was so fruitfull as that which was steeped in the blood of Martyrs.

> bigher spirit in Christianity than could be obtained by the sublime notions and speculations of Flato, and that a poor ignorant Christian would do and suffer more for the fake of thrist than

> Thence Justin Martyr ingenuously faith of himself, That while he was a Platonick Philosopher, he derided and scoffed at the Christians; but when he considered their great courage and constancy in dying for their profession, he could not think those could possibly be men wicked and voluptuous, who when offers of life were made them, would rather choose death than deny Christ. By which he found plainly that there was a

any of the Academy in defence of their master Plato Now since all men naturally abhor sufferings, what is it which should so powerfully alter the nature and disposition of Christians above all other persons, that they alone should seem in that to have forgot humanity, that not only with patience, but with joy they endured torments and abode the flames? What! were they all possessed with a far more than Stoical Apothy, that no sense of pain could work at all upon them? or were they all befotted and infatuated persons that did not know what it was they underwent? It is true some of the more blind and wilfull Heathens derided them as fuch; but who were the more infatuated, let any fober person judge: they who slighted and rejected a dostrine of so great concernment, which came attested with so much resolution and courage in the professors of it; or they who were so far persuaded of the truth of it, that they would rather die than deny it? Dicimus & Tertull, Ap. cap. palam dicimus, & vobis torquentibus lacerati & cruenti vociferamur, Deum colimus per Christum. They were not ashamed to believe in the blood of Christ even when their own blood ran down before their eyes, and confess Christ with their mouths when their bodies were upon the rack. Certainly then there were some very powerfull and convincing arguments which buoyed up the spirits of true Christians in that deluge of sufferings which they were to swim through; it must be a strong and well-grounded faith which would hold out under so great tryals, and they could not be to feek for the most persuasive motives to faith, who were so ready to give an account to others of the hope that was in them, and to persuade all other persons to the embracing of it. With what face and confidence otherwise could they perfuade men to embrace a dostrine so dangerous as that was, had there not been motives sufficient to bear up against the weight of sufferings, and arguments persuasive to convince them of the undoubted certainty of that dostrine which they encouraged them to believe?

Now that which appears to have been the main ground of Sect. 13. Satisfaction to the Primitive Christians as to the truth and certainty of the Doctrine of Christ, was this, That the Doctrine of the Gospel was at first delivered to the world by those perfons who were themselves eye-witnesses of all the miracles which our Saviour wrought in confirmation of the truth of what he

spake.

2 Pet. 1. 16.

fent, not only to hear most of our Saviour's admirable discourfes when he was in the world, but to fee all those glorious things which were done by him, to make it appear that he was immediately sent from God. Let us now appeal to our own faculties, and examine a little what rational evidence could possibly be defired, that the dostrine of the Gospel was true, which God did not afford to the world? What could the persons who were the auditors of our Saviour defire more as an evidence that he came from God, than his doing fuch things which were certainly above any created power, either humane or diabolical, and therefore must needs be Divine? What could other persons desire more who were not present at the doing of these miracles, but that the report of them should be conveyed to them in an undoubted manner by those persons who were eye-witnesses of them, and made it appear to the world they were far from any intention of deceiving it? Now this makes the Apostles themselves in their own writings (though they were divinely inspired) appeal to the rational evidence of the truth of the things in that they were delivered by them who were eye-witnesses of them. There St. Peter speaks thus to the dispersed Fems, & 28 σεσοφισιώνοις μύθοις ξακολεθήσαντες έγνωείσαμθυ ύμῶν την τε Κυείε ήμῶν Ιησε Χειςς Νναμιν κ παρεσίαν, άλλ επόπ-Tax Sun Sevies of Eneive weganeson I . For we have not followed cunningly-devised fables, when we made known unto you the power and coming of our Lord Fesus Christ, but were eye-witnesses of his Majesty. The power and coming of Christ which the Apostle speaks of, was not as some improbably conceive, either his general coming to judgment upon the world, or his particular coming upon the Nation of the Jews; but by an Hendyades, by his power and coming is meant his powerfull appearance in the world, whereby he mightily discovered himself to be the Son of God. Now this, faith the Apostle, was no or or or of sulf of mile, not like the Heathen Mythology concerning the magazias and Emparsia, of their Gods among them (which were so frequent-

Ansig. 1.2. pag. ly believed among them, that Dionysius Halicarnassaus con-128. demns the Epicureans, because they did deride rus omqueias Two Dear, the appearances of their Gods in the world) now, faith the Apostle, assure your selves, this is no such appearance of a

God on Earth as that among the Heathens was; for, faith he,

we our selves who declare these things were iniwal, we fully understood this usine unside on, this great mystery of godliness, God manifest in the slesh, for we saw his ueganesoms, that great majesty which attended him in all which he spake or did; we saw all those uspansia 78 Osk, the great things of God, which were A&. 2. 11. manifest in him, all those miraculous operations which were wrought by him. Therefore as this was a great confirmation of the faith of the Apostles themselves that they saw all these things, fo we fee it was of great concernment to the world in order to their belief that the Gospel was no cunningly-devised fable, in that it was delivered by fuch who were enonne, eyewitnesses of what they declared. To the same purpose St. John speaks ad conciliandam fidem, to make it appear how true what they delivered was, in the entrance of his Epistle; That which I Joh. I. 1,2,3. was from the beginning, which we have heard, which we have seen with our eyes, which we have looked upon, and our hands have handled of the word of life, (for the life was manifested, and we have seen it, and bear witness, and shew unto you that eternal life which was with the father, and was manifested unto us) That which we have seen and heard, declare we unto you. We see what great force and weight the Apostle lays upon this, that they delivered nothing but what they had feen and heard; as they heard the doctrine of Christ, so they saw the miracles which he wrought in confirmation of it. St. Luke likewise in the beginning of his Golpel declares that he intended to write Luk. 1. 1, 2, 3. nothing but what he had perfect understanding of from such persons who had been autowrus, eye-witnesses and instruments themselves in part of what was written, for that is meant by isperal τε λόγε: and those things which were written, he saith were πεπληερφοςηυθέα èr ήμιν φεάγματα, things which are abundantly proved to be true; for being matters of fast, there could be no stronger proof of them, than by such who were eye-witnesses of what they soake. And this we find the Apostles themselves very cautious about, in the choice of a new Apostle in the room of Judas. Wherefore of these men which have companied with us, Act. 1. 21, 22. all the time that the Lord Fesus went in and out among us, beginning from the baptism of John, unto that same day that he was taken from 185, must one be ordained to be a witness of his resurrection: For, because Christ was mightily declared to be the Son of God by his resurrection from the dead, (as that which Mm

was the great Seal of our Saviour's being the Son of God therefore we find the Apostles so frequently attesting the truth of the resurrection of Christ, and that themselves were eye witnesses of it. This Jesus, saith Peter, hath God raised up, where of we

Act. 2. 32.

3. 15.

5. 32.

all are witnesses. And again, And killed the Prince of life, whom God hath raised up from the dead, whereof we are witnesses; and both Feter and John to the Sanhedrin; For we cannot but

4. 20. Speak the things which we have seen and heard. And the whole Colledge of Apostles afterwards, And we are his witnesses of

these things, and so is also the Holy Ghost, whom God hath given to them that obey him. In which words they give them that twofold rational evidence which did manifest the undoubted truth of what they spake; for they delivered nothing but what themselves were witnesses of, and withall was declared to be true by the power of the Holy Ghost in the miracles which were wrought by and upon believers. Afterwards we read the sum of the Apostles Preaching, and the manner used by them to persuade men of the truth of it, in the words of Peter to

40.39,40,41, Cornelius and his company, How God anointed Jesus of Nazareth
42 with the Holy Ghost and with power, who went about doing good,
and healing all that were oppressed of the Devil, for God was
with him: And we are witnesses of all things which he did both
in the land of the Jews and in Hierusclem, whom they slew and

an the land of the Jews and in Hierufelem, whom they flew and hanged on a tree: Him God raifed up the third day, and shewed him openly, not to all the people, but unto witnesses chosen before of God, even to us who did eat and drink with him after he rose from the dead. And he commanded us to preach unto the people, that it is he which was ordained of God to be the Judge of quick and dead. By all which we see what care God was pleased to take for the satisfaction of the world in point of rational evidence, as to the truth of the matters which were discovered concerning our Saviour Christ, because he made choive of such persons to be the preachers and writers of these things who were the best able to satisfie the world about them, viz. such

as had been eye-witnesses of them.

Sect. 14. Now in order to the making it n

Now in order to the making it more fully evident what ftrength there was in this Testimony given by the Apostles to the miracles of Christ, we shall more fully manifest the rational evidence which attended it in these following propositions. Where the truth of a dostrine depends upon a matter of fast, the truth

truth of the docurine is sufficiently manifested, if the matter of fast be evidently proved in the highest way it is capable of. Thus it is in reference to the dostrine of Christ; for the truth of that is so intermoven with the truth of the story of Christ, that if the relations concerning Christ be true, his doctrine must needs be divine and infallible. For if it be undoubtedly true. that there was such a person as Christ born at Bethlehem, who did so many miracles, and at last suffered the death of the Cross. and after he had lain three days in the grave rose wain from the dead, what reason imaginable can I have to question, but that the Testimony of this person was certainly Divine, and confequently what-ever he preached to the world was most certain and undoubted truth. So that if we have clear evidence as to the truth of these passages concerning our Saviour, we must likewise believe his dostrine, which came attested with fuch pregnant evidences of a Divine commission which he had from God to the world. No Prince can think he hath any reafon to refuse audience to an Embassador, when he finds his Credentials fuch as he may rely upon, although himself doth not fee the fealing of them; much less reason have we to question the truth of the dostrine of the Gospel, if we have sufficient evidence of the truth of the matters of fast concerning Christ, in fuch a way as those things are capable of being proved.

The greatest evidence which can be given to a matter of fact, is Prop. 2. the attesting of it by those persons who were eye-witnesses of it. This is the Foundation whereon the firmest affent is built, as to any matter of fast; for although we conceive we have reason to suspect the truth of a story, as long as it is conveyed only in a general way, by an uncertain fame and tradition; yet when it comes to be attested by a sufficient number of credible persons who profess themselves the eye-witnesses of it, it is accounted an unreasonable thing to distrust any longer the truth of it; especially in these two cases. I. When the matter they bear witness to is a thing which they might easily and clearly perceive. 2. When

many witnesses exactly agree in the same Testimony.

I. When the matter it self is of that nature that it may be fully perceived by those who saw it: i.e. if it be a common object of sense. And thus it certainly was as to the person and actions of Jesus Christ. For he was of the same nature with mankind; and they had as great evidence that they conversed with Fesus M m 2

Christ

Joh. 9. 26.

Luk. 7. 12.

Joh. 11. 39.

Christ in the flesh, as we can have that we converse one with another. The miracles of Christ were real and visible miracles; they could be no illusions of senses, nor deceits of their eyes; the man who was born blind and cured by our Saviour, was known to have been born blind through all the Country, and his cure was after as publick as his blindness before, and acknowledged by the greatest enemies of Christ at the time of its being done. When Christ raised up the dead man at Naim, it was before much people, and fuch persons in probability who were many of them present at his death. But lest there might be any suspicion as to him, that he was not really dead, the case is plain and beyond all dispute in Lazarus, who had been to the knowledge of all persons thereabouts dead four days; here could be no deceit at all when the stone was rowled away, and Lazarus came forth in the presence of them all. And yet further the death and passion of our Saviour was a plain object of sense done in presence of his greatest adversaries. The souldiers themselves were sufficient witnesses of his being really dead. when they came to break his bones, and spared him because they faw he was dead already. At his resurrection the stone was rowled away from the Sepulchre and no body found therein, although the Sepulchre was guarded by fouldiers, and the Disciples of Christ all so fearfull, that they were dispersed up and down in feveral places. And that it was the fame real body which he rose withall, and no aereal vehicle, appears by Themas his scrupulosity and unbelief, who would not believe unless he Joh. 20. 25,27. might put his hands into the hole of his side, and see in his hands the print of the nails; now our Saviour condescending so far as to fatisfie the incredulity of Thomas, hath made it thereby evident that the body which our Saviour rose from the grave with, was the fame individual body which before was crucified

Link. 24. 37.

phantalm, or an evil spirit which appeared among them; upon which it is faid, they were terrified and affrighted, and supposed they had seen a spirit. Which our Saviour could not beat them off from, but by appealing to the judgment of their fenfes, Handle me and fee; for a spirit hath not flesh and bones as ye

and buried in the Sepulchre. And we find all the Apostles together upon our Saviour's appearance to them after his resurrection, so far from being credulous in embracing a phantasm instead of Christ, that they suspected that it was either a mere

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fee me have; and afterwards more fully to convince them, he did eat in the midst of them. Now the more suspicious and incredulous the Apoliles themselves at first were, the greater evidence is it how far they were from any design of abusing the world in what they after preached unto it, and what strong conviction there was in the thing it felf, which was able to fatisfie fuch scrupulous and suspicious persons.

2. When many witnesses concurr in the same Testimony. Nothing can disparage more the truth of a testimony, than the counter-witness of such who were present at the same actions; but when all the witnesses fully agree not only in the substance, but in all material circumstances of the story, what ground or" reason can there be to suspect a forgery or design in it; especially when the persons cannot by any fears or threatnings be brought to vary from each other in it! Thus it is in our present case, we find no real diffent at all mentioned either as to the birth, miracles, life, death, or refurrection of Jesus Christ; all the mitneffes attest the same things, though writing in different places, and upon different occasions; no alteration in any circumstance. of the story, out of any design of pleasing or gratifying any perfons by it. Most of our Saviour's miracles, not only his Apofles, but the people and his very enemies were witnesses of. whose posterity to this day dare not deny the truth of such strange works which were wrought by him. And for his refurrection, it would be very strange that five hundred persons' should all agree in the same thing, and that no torments or death could bring any of them to deny the truth of it, had there not been the greatest certainty in it.

There can be no reason to suspect such a testimony which is given' Sect. 15. by eye-witnesses, but either from questioning their knowledge of the Prop. 2. things they spake of, or their fidelity in reporting them. Now there' is not the least ground to doubt either of these, in reference to those persons who gave testimony to the world concerning the

person and actions of our blessed Saviour.

For first, They were such as were intimately conversant both with the person and actions of Jesus Christ; whom he had chofen and trained up for that very end, that they might be sufficiently qualified to acquaint the world with the truth of things concerning himself after his resurrection from the dead. And accordingly they followed him up and down wherefoever he

went; they were with him in his folitudes and retirements, and had thereby occasion to observe all his actions, and to take notice of the unspotted innocency of his life. Some of his Disciples were with him in his transfiguration, others in his agony and bloody freat, they heard the expressions which came from his mouth; in all which he discovered a wonderfull submission to the will of God, and a great readiness of mind to suffer for the good of the world. Now therefore the first thing cannot at all be questioned, their means of knowing the truth of what they spake.

2. I.

Neither, secondly, is there any reason to suspect their fidelity in reporting what they knew: For, 1. The truth of this doctrine wrought so far upon them, that they parted with all their worldly subsistence for the sake of it: Although their riches were not great, yet their may of subsistence in the world was necessary; they left their houses, their wives and children, and all for Christ, and that not to gain any higher preferments in this world (which had they done, it would have rendred their defign suspicious to the curious and inquisitive world) but they let go at least a quiet and easie life, for one most troublesome and dangerous. So that it is not, how much they parted withall, but how freely they did it, and with what chearfulness they underwent disgraces, persecutions, nav death it self for the sake of the Gospel. Now can it be imagined, that ever men were so prodigal of their ease and lives, as to throw both of them away upon a thing which themselves were not fully assured of the truth of? It had been the highest folly imaginable, to have deceived themselves in a thing of so great moment to them, as the truth of the doctrine which they preached was; because all their hopes and happiness depended upon the truth of that doctrine which they preached. And as Tertullian observes, Non fas eft ulli de suà religione mentiri; for, saith he, he that says he mor-Thips any thing besides what he doth, he denies what he doth wor-(hip, and transfers his worship upon another, and thereby doth not worship that which he thus denies; Besides, what probability is there men should lye for the sake of that Religion which tells them that those which do so shall not receive the reward which is promifed to those who cordially adhere unto it! Nay, they Cor. 15. 19. declared themselves to be the most miserable of all persons if their hopes were only in this present life. Can we now think that any who had the common reason of men, would part with all the

content-

contentments of this world, and expose themselves to continual bazards, and at last undergo death it self for the sake of something which was merely the fiction of their own brains? What should make them so sedulous and industrious in preaching such things that they could say necessity was laid upon them, yea, wo I Cor. 9. 16. was unto them if they preached not the Gospel, when yet they faw fo many woes attending them in the preaching of it, had there not been some more powerfull attractive in the beauty and excellency of the doctrine which they preached, than any could be in the ease and tranquillity of this present world? Thus we fee the fidelity of the Apostles manifested in such a way as no other witnesses were ever yet willing to hazard theirs. And therefore Origen deservedly condemns Celsus of a ridiculous im- L. 3. c. Celsum pertinency, when he would parallel the relations of Herodotus P. 127. and Pindarus concerning Arifteus Proconnessus with those of the Apostles concerning Christ; For, saith he, did either of these two venture their lives upon the truth of what they writ concerning him, as the Apostles did to attest the truth of what they preached concerning our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ?

2. The fidelity of the Apostles is evident in their manner of Sect. 16. reporting the things which they deliver. For if ever there may be any thing gathered from the manner of expression, or the right for the person from whom it comes, we may certainly read the greatest fidelity in the Apostles from the peculiar manner of their expression themselves to the morld. Which they do,

not declaring only what was glorious and admirable to the world, but what they knew would be accounted foolishness by it. They who had sought only to have been admired for the rare discoveries which they brought to the world, would be sure to conceal any thing which might be accounted ridiculous; but the Apostles sixed themselves most on what was most contemptible in the eyes of the world, and what they were most mocked and derided for, that they delighted most in the preaching of, which was the Cross of Christ. Paul was so much in love with this, which was a stumbling-block to the fews, and foolishness to the Greeks, that I Cor. 2. 2 he valued the knowledge of nothing else in comparison of the know-Phil. 3. 8. ledge of Christ and him crucified. Nay he elsewhere saith, God Gal. 6. 14. forbid that I should glory save in the Cross of Christ. What now

should

should be the reason that they should rejoyce in that most which was most despicable to the world, had not they seen far greater truth and excellency in it, than in the most sublime speculations concerning God or the fouls of men in the School of Plato or any other Heathen Philosophers? That all men should be bound in order to their falvation, to believe in one who was crucified at Hierusalem, was a strange dostrine to the unbelieving world: but if the Apostles had but endeavoured to have fuited their doctrine to the School of Plato, what rare persons might they have been accounted among the Heathen Philosophers! Had they only in general terms discoursed of the Benignity of the Divine nature, and the Manifestations of Divine goodness in the world, and that, in order to the bringing of the fouls of men to a nearer participation of the Divine nature, the perfect Idea of true goodness, and the express image of the perfon of God, and the resplendency of his glory had veiled himself in Humane nature, and had every-where scattered such beams of light and goodness, as warmed and invigorated the frozen spirits of men with higher fentiments of God and themselves, and raised them up above the feculency of this terrestrial matter to breathe in a freer air, and converse with more noble objects, and by degrees to fit the souls of men for those more pure illapses of real goodness, which might always satisfie the soul's desires, and yet always keep them up 'till the foul should be sunning it self to all eternity under the immediate beams of Light and Love: And that after this Incarnate Deity had spread abroad the wings of his Love for a while upon this lower world, 'till by his gentle heat and incubation he had quickned the more pliable world to fome degree of a Divine Life, he then retreated himself back again into the superiour world, and put off that veil by which he made himself known to those who are here confined to the prisons of their bodies: Thus, I say, had the Apostles minded applause among the admired Philosophers of the Heathers, how easie had it been for them to have made some considerable additions to their highest speculations, and have left out any thing which might feem so mean and contemptible as the death of the Son of God! But this they were fo far from, that the main thing which they preached to the world, was, the vanity of bumane wisdom without Christ, and the necessity of all men's bedieving in that Jesus who was crucified at Hierusalem. The

The Apostles indeed discover very much, infinitely more than ever the most lofty Platonist could do, concerning the goodness and love of God to mankind; but that wherein they manifested the love of God to the world, was, that he gave his only-begotten Joh. 3.16. Son, that who soever believeth in him should not perish but have everlafting life. And that herein was the Love of God manifested, Rom. 5. 8. that while we were yet sinners, Christ died for us. And that this was the greatest truth and worthy of all acceptation, that Jesus I Tim. 1. 15. Christ came into the world to save sinners. They never dreamt of any Divine goodness which should make men happy without Christ: No, it was their design to persuade the world that all the communications of God's goodness to the world were wholly in and through Jesus Christ; and it is impossible that any should think otherwise, unless Plato knew more of the mind of God than our bleffed Saviour, and Plotinus than Saint Paul. Can we think now that the Apostles should hazard the reputation of their own wits fo much as they did to the world, and be accounted bablers, and fools, and mad-men, for preaching the way of salvation to be only by a person crucified between two thieves at Hierusalem, had they not been convinced not only of the truth but importance of it, and that it concerned men as much to believe it, as it did to avoid eternal misery? Did Saint Paul preach ever the less the mords of truth and soberness, because he was told to his face that his Learning had made him mad? But if he was besides himself, it was for Christ; and what wonder was it if the Love of Christ in the Apostle should make him willing to lose his reputation for him, seeing Christ made himself of no reputation, that he might be in a capacity to do us good? We fee the Apostles were not ashamed of the Gospel of Christ, because they knew it was the power of God to salvation, and therefore neither in their preaching or their writings would they omit any of those passages concerning our Saviour's death, which might be accounted the most dishonourable to his person. Which is certainly as great an evidence of their fidelity as can be expected; which makes Origen say that the Disciples of their writ all things ornanious x evyroucovos, with a great deal of candor and L. 3. c. Celf. love of truth. En warnhelavres & neel auts of adole isocias to doney This TOANOIS aigivle The Noya The xeistavar peger. not concealing from the world those passages of the life of Christ, which would be accounted most foolish and ridiculous.

2. With the greatest plainness and simplicity of speech. Such whose design is to impose upon the minds of men with some cunningly-devised fables, love as much ambiguity as ever Apollo did in his most winding Oracles, of whom it is said,

Ambage nexa Delphico mos est Deo Arcana tegere.

In 4. Aneid.

Servius tells us, that Jupiter Ammon was therefore pictured with Rams-horns, because his answers had as many turnings and windings as they had. But the horns which Moles was wont to be pistured with, did only note light and perspicuity (from the ambiguity of 177, which notes the fending forth of rayes of light like a horn,) and yet Moses himself was veiled in comparison of the openness and plainness of speech which was in the Apostles. Impostors cast a mist of many dark and cloudy words before them, but when they are once brought into the open light, their vizard falls off, and their deformity appears. Such persons delight in soaring quite out of the apprehensions of those who follow them, and never think themselves better recompensed for their pains, than when they are most admired and least understood. But never was Christianity more dishonoured, than when men brought it from its native simplicity and plainness, into a company of cloudy and insignificant expressions, which are so far from making men better understand the truth of it, that it was certainly the Devil's design by fuch obscure terms to make way for a mystery to be advanced, (but it was of iniquity,) and soon after, we see the effect of it in another Oracle set up at Rome instead of Delphos; and all the pretence of it, was the obscurity supposed in Scripture. What! darkness come by the rising of the Sun! Or is the Sun at last grown so beggarly, that he is fain to borrow light of the Earth? Must the Scripture be beholding to the Church for its elearness, and Christ himself not speak intelligibly, unless the Pope be his Interpreter? Did Christ reveal to the world the way to falvation, and yet leave men to feek which was it, 'till a Guide never heard of in the Scripture come to direct them in the way to it? What strange witnesses were the Apostles, if they did not speak the truth with plainness? How had men been to kek as to the truth of Christianity, if the Apostles had not declared

declared the dostrine of the Gospel with all evidence and perspicuity? Whom must we believe in this case, the Apostles or the Roman Oracle? The Apostles they tell us they speak with all 2 Cor. 3. 12. plainness of speech, and for that end purposely lay aside all ex- 1 Cor. 2. 1, 4. cellency of words and humane wisdom, that men might not be to 1 Cor. 4. 3, 4. feek for their meaning in a matter of fo great moment; that the Gospel was hid to none but such as are lost, and whose eyes are blinded by the God of this world; that the doctrine revealed by them is a light to direct us in our way to Heaven, and a rule to walk by; and it is a strange property of light to be obscure, and of a rule to be crocked. But it is not only evident from the Apostles own affirmations, that they laid aside all affected obscurity, ambiguous expressions, and Philosophical terms, whereby the world might have been to feek for what they were to believe, but it is likewise clear from the very nature of the doctrine they preached, and the design of their preaching of it. need Rhetorick in plain truths? or affected phrases in giving evidence? How incongruous would obscure expressions have been to the design of saving souls by the foolishness of preaching? For if they had industriously spoken in their preaching, above the capacities of those they spake to, they could never have converted a foul without a miracle; for the ordinary way of conversion must be by the understanding; and how could that work upon the understanding, which was so much above it? But, faith the Apostle, we preach not our selves, but Christ Jesus 2 Cor. 4. 5. the Lord, and our selves your servants for Fesus sake. If they had fought themselves or their own credit and reputation, there might have been some reason that they should have used the way of the Sophists among the Greeks, and by declamatory speeshes to have inhanced their esteem among the vulgar. But the Apofles disowned and rejected all these vulgar artifices of mean and low-spirited men; they laid aside all those enticing words ar 3ew- 1 Cor. 2. 4 mine moias of the way of the Heathen Sophists, and declared the Testimony of God with spiritual evidence; they handled not the Word of God deceitfully, but by manifestation of the truth, com- 2 Cor. 4. 2. mended themselves to every man's conscience in the fight of God: Now what could be so suitable to such a design, as the greatest plainness and faithfulness in what they spake? We find in the testimony of the Aposties, & Ser νόθον κ' κυβευπκον κ' πεπλασμβόν κ' Orig. c. C. (...) may 8920, as Origen speaks, Nothing that is spurious or counter-p. 135. Nn 2 feit.

feit, nothing savouring of the cunning craftiness of such as lie in wait to deceive; and, faith he, it is impossible to think that men never bred up in the Sophistry of the Greeks, nor experienced in the Rhetorical infinuations used among them, could ever be able so suddenly to persuade the world to embrace that which had been a figment of their own brains. The truth is, the Apostles speak like men very confident of the truth of what they feak, and not like such who were fain to fetch in the help of all their Topicks. to find out some probable arguments to make men believe that which it is probable they did not believe themselves, which was most commonly the case of the great Orators among the Heathens. We find no pedantick flourishes, no flattering insinuations, no affected cadencies, no fuch great care of the rifing and falling of words in the feveral fentences, which make up fo great a part of that which was accounted eloquence in the Apofles times. These things were too mean a prey for the spirits of the Apostles to quarry upon; every thing in them was grave and ferious, every word had its due weight, every fentence brimfull of spiritual matter, their whole discourse most becoming the Majesty and Authority of that spirit which they spake by. And therein was seen a great part of the infinite wisdom of God in the choice he made of the persons who were to prepagate the Doctrine of Christ in the world, that they were not such who by reason of their great repute and same in the world, might easily draw whole multitudes to embrace their dictates, but (that there might not be the least foundation for an implicite faith). they were of so mean rank and condition in the world, that in all probability their names had never been heard of, had not their doctrine made them famous. To this purpose Origen excellently fpeaks, อโนลเ ๆ หู ซี Inogo Sa ซัฐาอ ผิรผิงก็ผินเ อิเอินอหูน่าอเร ซัฐ อัฐมน-10 χεριδαι τοιέτοις, ίνα μηθεμίαν μέρ έχη χώραν Ισόνοια πθανών σοφισμάτων λαμπεώς ή τοις συνιέναι Δυαμβίοις έμφαίνη αι, όπ τὸ άδολον & περαιρέσεως, Αν γεαλάντων, εχέσης πολύ το άφελες, ήξιώθη. θειοτέξας δυνάμεως, πολλώ μάλλον άνυκσης, ήπες άνύειν δύναθαι δοκεί σειβολή λόγων, κ λέξεων σύνθεσις, κ μετά διαιβέσεων κ τεχνολογίας. Expluixis axone Ha. I am of opinion, saith he, that Fesus did purposely make use of such Preachers of his Dostrine, that there might be no place for suspicion that they came instructed with the arts of Sophistry; but that it be clearly manifest to all that would consider it, that there was nothing of design in those who discovered

45. Gelf. l. 3.

wered so much simplicity in their writings, and that they had a more divine power which was more efficacious than the greatest volubility of expressions, or ornaments of speech, or the artisces

which were used in the Grecian compositions.

2. The Apostles delivered their doctrine with the greatest openness and freedom of stirit; they did not give out one thing to the world, and another to their private Disciples; but with great freedom and boldness declared their doctrine in the most publick places, and before their greatest enemies. they were looked on as deceivers by the world, but yet they knew themselves to be true, ws maavor no anness. This is the 2 Cor. 6. & usual requital good men have from the world, that they are looked on as the greatest deceivers of it; if it be so with others, they have much less cause to wonder at it, when even he, who by one Prophet is styled the desire of Nations, is by another said Hag. 2. 7. to be despised and rejected of men; and when Christ was in the Isa. 53. 3. world, he was called & what 9, the deceiver; no wonder then Mat. 27. 63. if his Disciples were accounted such, although they manifested their veracity by their open carriage and free Beaking to the faces of their greatest adversaries. The Apostles neither feared the Fews skill in their Law, nor the wisdom and subtilty of the Greeks: Saint Paul preacheth Christ openly among the 7ews in their Synagogues, and among the Athenians he encounters the Epicureans and Stoicks, and preacheth to them Fesus and Act. 17. 18. the resurrection. If the Apostles had any thing of deceivers in them, as to the things they related concerning Christ, they would not certainly have spoken with so much confidence concerning Christ in the presence of those who had been his murtherers: but we see they appealed to themselves, as to the miracles which he had wrought among them, and for his resurrection they were ready to lay down their lives in giving testimony to the truth of it. That his body was gone, was evident; that the Apostles should take it away was impossible, considering what a guard of souldiers they had set upon it, and how timorous and fearfull the Apostles were, that they fled upon Christ's being apprehended. Now what could it be, could make fuch fearfull persons afterwards so courageous and resolute as they were, had there not been some more than ordinary power to convince and encourage them ?

4. The Apostles deliver their Testimony with the greatest particularity as to all circumstances. They do not change or alter any of them upon different examinations before several persons; they all agree in the greatest constancy to themselves and uniformity with each other. As to matters of indifferency, we find the Apostles very yielding and condescending; but as to any thing which concerned their testimony, most constant and refolved. Had the Gospel been some cunningly-contrived fancy, it had been impossible but so many different persons, in such different places, and under fuch different conditions, would have varied as to some material circumstance of it: Or else they would have been so wise as to have delivered it in general terms. without insisting much on such particular circumstances, which if they had been false, might have been very easily discroved; but with what particular enumeration of circumstances do the Apostles preach Christ to the world? Peter tells the Jews that it was Jesus of Nazareth whom he preached; and lest they should think it was not the same person who rose again; with great boldness and freedom of spirit he saith to them, Therefore let all the house of Israel know assuredly that God bath made that same Fesus whom ye have crucified, both Lord and Christ. Yea that fame individual person who was conversant in the world, and died upon the Cross, is now become a Prince and Saviour to give repentance to Israel and remission of sins. If there had been any ground of suspicion as to these things, who had been so able to distrove them, or so ready to do it, as those persons who had crucified him? For we cannot conceive but those who had a hand in his death, would endeavour by all possible means to disprove his resurrection from the dead. For what a case were they like to be in, if those things which the Apostles so considently preached were true? If Christ had all power now in his hands, and there were salvation in no other name, but only in his whom they had crucified, they were like to be in a most desperate condition; therefore if any men can be supposed inquisitive after the truth of these circumstances, no doubt these were: And if they could have found the least flaw in their testimony, the world would foon have ringed of it; and the Jews who were then fo much distersed abroad, would have divulged it into all parts, the Apostles would have been told of it as they preached Christ in the Synagogues. And can we in any reason think, but those Fews

Act. 2. 22.

2. 36.

5. 31, 32.

Tems who persecuted Paul as he preached in the Synagogues of Asia, and afterwards impeached him so openly at Ferusalem, would there enquire into all the circumstances concerning Christ, and all the other Fews would write to their friends at Ferusalem to be fully informed of those strange things which were told them openly in all places in their Synagogues by men of their own Nation and Language, concerning one Jesus who was crucified and rose again from the dead. Had there been now any so much as plaulible pretext that any of these circumstances were not true. can we think but that a people so unmeasurably given to their own ways and traditions, would in all places have vented any thing that might have tended to the disparagement of Christ and his Apostles? But we see malice it self could not find any flaw in the Apostles testimony; for if it had, we should certainly have heard of it, either from the Fews, or from the great opposers of Christianity among the Heathens, who pretended to be curious and inquisitive persons, such as Celsus, Julian, Hierocles and Porphyrie were. What reason can we have then in the least to suspect such a Testimony which passed so uncontrolled in that time when it was alone capable of being disproved, and men's interest and design would put them so much upon it? The strength of which will appear from the next proposition, which is,

No Testimony ought to be taken against a matter of fact thus attested, but from such persons who had greater knowledge of the things attested, and manifest greater sidelity in reporting them. It is easie to make it appear, that supposing any persons at that time had contradicted the Testimony of the Apostles concerning our Saviour, yet there had been no reason in the world to have hearkned to their Testimony in opposition to that of the Apostles; and that on these accounts. 1. The Apostles witnessed the Affirmative, which is more capable of being attested than any Negative can be. 2. The Apostles were more conversant with Christ than any other persons were, because they were chosen for that very end by him to be constantly with him: could any therefore be more capable of knowing the truth of all particulars concerning (hrift than these were? Had there been any ground of suspicion concerning the design of Christ, why could not the Jews prevail with Judas to discover it as well as to betray his person? Judas had done but a good work if Christ had been fuch

Sect. 17.
Prop. 4.

fuch an impostor as the Jews blasphemously said he was: what made Judas then so little satisfied with his work, that he grew

weary of his life upon it, and threw himself away in the most horrid despair? No person certainly had been so sit to have been produced as a witness against Christ, as Judas who had been so long with him, and had heard his speeches and observed his miracles; but he had not patience enough to stay after that borrid fact to be a witness against him: nay he was the greatest witness at that time for him, when he who had betrayed him came to the Sanhedrin when consulting about his death, and told them that he had sinned in betraying innocent blood. What possible evidence could have been given more in behalf of our Saviour than that was? When a person so covetous as to betray his Master for thirty pieces of silver, was so weary of his bargain that he comes and throws back the money, and declares the person innocent whom he had betrayed? And this person too was fuch a one as knew our Saviour far better than any of the witnesses whom afterwards they suborned against him, who yet contradicted each other; and at last could produce nothing which in the judgment of the Heathen Governour could make him judge Christ worthy of death. 2. The Apostles were freer from design than any counter-witness at that time could be; we have already proved the Apostles could not possibly have any other motive to affirm what they did, but full conviction of the truth of what they spake; but now if any among the Fews at that time had afferted any thing contrary to the Apostles, we have a clear account of it, and what motive might induce them to it; viz. the preserving of their honour and reputation with the people, the upholding their traditions, besides their open and declared enmity against Christ without any sufficient reason at all for it; now who would believe the Testimony of the Scribes and Pharifees who had so great authority among the people, which they were like to lofe, if Christ's doctrine were true, before that of the Apostles who parted with all for the fake of Christ, and ventured themselves wholly upon the truth

of our Saviour's doctrine? 4. None ever did so much to attest the Negative, as the Apostles did to prove their sidelity as to the Affirmative. Had sufficient counter-witness been timely produced, we cannot think the Apostles would have run so many continual hazards in Preaching the things which related to the per-

Mat. 27. 5.

fon and actions of Christ. Did ever any lay down their lives to undeceive the world if the Apostles were guilty of abusing it?

5. The number of such persons had been inconsiderable in comparison of those who were so sully persuaded of the truth of those things which concern our Saviour; who were all ready (as most of them did) to seal the truth of them with their lives. Whence should so many men grow so suddenly consident of the truth of such things which were contrary to their former persuasions, interest, education, had they not been delivered in such a way, that they were assured of the undoubted truth of them? which brings me to the last proposition, which is,

Matters of fast being first believed on the account of eye-witness, and received with an universal and uncontrouled assent by all such persons who have thought themselves concerned in knowing the truth of them, do yield a sufficient foundation for a sirm assent to be built upon. I take it for granted that there is sufficient foundation for a sirm assent, where there can be no reason given to question the evidence; which that there is not in this present

case, will appear from these following considerations.

1. That the multitudes of those persons who did believe these things, had liberty and opportunity to be satisfied of the truth of them before they believed them. Therefore no reason or motive can be assigned, on which they should be induced to believe these things, but the undoubted evidence of truth which went along with them. I confess in Mahumetism a very great number of persons have for some centuries of years continued in the belief of the doctrine of Mahomet; but then withall there is a fufficient account to be given of that, viz. the power of the sword which keeps them in awe, and strictly forbids all the followers of Mahomet to dispute their religion at all, or compare it with any other. Therefore I can no more wonder at this, than I do to fee fo great a part of the world under the Tyranny of the great Turk: Neither on the other fide do I wonder that fuch a multitude of those professing Christianity should together with it, believe a great number of erroneous doctrines, and live in the practice of many gross superstitions, because I consider what a strange prevalency education hath upon softer spirits and more easie intellectuals, and what an ame an Inquisition bears upon timorous and irresolved persons. But now when a great multitude of persons sober and inquisitive, shall contrary to the prin-Oo ciples

Sect. 18.
Prop. 5.

ciples of their education, and without fear of any humane force. (which they before-hand fee will persecute them) and after diligent enquiry made into the grounds on which they believe, forfake all their former persuasions, and resolvedly adhere to the truth of the doctrine propounded to them, though it cost them their lives; if this give us not reason to think this doctrine true. we must believe mankind to be the most unhappy creatures in the world; that will with so much resolution part with all advantages of this life for the sake of one to come, if that be not undoubtedly certain, and the dostrine proposing it infallibly true. It is an observable circumstance in the propagation of Christian Religion, that though God made choice at first of persons generally of mean rank and condition in the world to be Preachers of the Gospel, God thereby making it appear that our faith did not stand in the wisdom of men, but in the power of God, and therefore chose the weak things of the world to confound the strong; yet foon after the Gospel was preached abroad in the world, we find persons of great place and reputation, of great parts and abilities engaged in the profession of the Christian Faith. In the History of the Acts we read of Sergius a Pro-conful, of Dionysius the Areopagite converted to the faith, and in the following ages of the Church many persons of great esteem for their excellent learning and abilities; fuch was Justin Martyr, one who before he became a Christian, was conversant with all Sects of Philo-Stoicks, Peripateticks, Pythagoreans, and at last was a professed Platonist'till he was converted from Plato to Christ, and then found that true which he speaks of in his Dialogue with Trypho, that after all his enquiries into Philosophy, speaking of the Dostrine of Christ ταύτω μόνω ενεισκον φιλοσοφίαν ασcann to is objected, I found this at last to be the only sure and profitable Philosophy. And when Trypho after derides him as a man of very easie faith, who would leave the dostrine of Plato for that of Christ, (for it seems by him the Fews then had a more favourable opinion of the state of Platonists than Christians) Jufin is so far from being moved with such reproaches, that he tells him he would undertake to demonstrate to him, 871 & xevois Thisasaulu musois, & de avanos explois abjois, adda mesois to vertual o Dels x Suranes Beison, x Teducion zaerr: that the Christians did not give credit to empty fables, and unprovable affertions, but to such a doctrine as was full of a Divine spirit and power, and flourished:

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J. Cor. 2. 5: 1. Cor. 1. 27.

Dialog. cum Tryph. p. 125. ca. Par.

Chap. 9. The Truth of Scripture-History afferted.

flourished with grace: The proving of which is the subject of

that discourse. At Alexandria we meet with a succession of excellent persons, all which were not only embracers themselves, but defenders of the Christian faith; for setting aside there Abilius, Justus, Cerdo, Eumenes, Marcus, Celadion, Agrippinus, Julianus, Demetrius, and others who flourished about the second Century, I shall only fix on those persons, who were famous enauirers after truth, and noted for excellency in Heathen learning; vet these persons after all their enquiries found nothing to fix on but the Christian faith, and valued no other discovery of truth in comparison with that. Such was Pantanus, who as Eufebius tells us, was an excellent Stoick before he became a Christian, and was after so eminent a one, that in imitation of the Apostles he went into India to convert the inhabitants to the Christian faith, and at his return was made Rector of the School at Alexandria; which as the same Author tells us, was much Hift. Ecol. 15. frequented by fuch who were in roya is the med the Sta Carolin c. 10. Nyaroi, well skill'd in Humane as well as Divine learning. How excellent Pantanus was in Humane learning, may appear in Euseb. 1.6. c. 20. that Origen and Hierome both make his example their plea for the studying of it. After him succeeded Clemens Alexandrinus, Pantænus his Scholar, a person of great depth of learning and exquisitely skill'd in all Heathen Antiquities, as appears by his remaining writings. The Learning of Origen is fufficiently known, which was in fuch great reputation in his own time, that not only Christians but Philosophers flocked to his Lectures at Alexandria as Eusebius tells us, wherein he read Hist. 1. 6. e.18 the Mathematicks, and other parts of Philosophy as well as the Scriptures; and the same Author informs us that the Philosophers did dedicate their books to him, and sometimes chose him. as arbitrator between them in matters of dispute; and Porphyrie himself in his books against the Christians vouchsafed a high encomium of Origen for his excellent learning. In Origen's time Heraclas a Presbyter of Alexandria for five years together frequented the Schools of the Philosophers, and put on the Philosophick pallium, βιθλία τε ελλιώων κζ κτ δύναμιν ε παύεζαι φιλολόρων, Eufeb. 1.6. c. 20. and was very conversant in the books of the Grecian Learning. Besides these we read of Pierius and Achillas two Presbyters of Alexandria who were τη καθ' έλλωμας παιθεία κή φιλοσοφία δεδο- Hift. Ecclef. 1.6. κιματικό, as Nicephorus Califtus speaks, persons well skilled in e. 35.

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Lib. 6. c. 35.

Lib. 6. c. 36.

the Grecian Learning and Philosophy. If from Alexandria we go to Casarea, there we not only meet with a School of learning among the Christians, but with persons very eminent in all kinds of learning; fuch were the famous Pamphilus and Eulebius so great an admirer of him, that ever since he is called Eusebius Pamphili. At Antioch was Dorotheus aving παντοίων λόγων κ, παιδείας έλευθεείκ, as Nicephorus speaks, a person versed in all kind of ingenuous literature. Anatolius Bishop of Laodicea, one versed in Geometry, Astronomy, and all kind of Philosophy as well as in the doctrine of Christ. Thus we see how in those early days of the Greek Church what excellent persons many of those were who were zealous Professors of Christianity; and concerning those of the Latin Church, I shall only mention that speech of St. Austin who was himself an instance of the same na-

Aug. de doctr. cap. 40.

ture and a star of the first magnitude among them. Nonne a-Christiana, l.2. spicimus quanto auro & argento & veste suffarcinatus exierit de Ægypto Cyprianus Dollor suavissimus & Martyr beatissimus? quanto Lastantius? quanto Victorinus, Optatus, Hilarius? ut de vivis taceam: quanto innumerabiles Graci? qued prior ipse fidelissimus Dei servus Moses fecerat, de quo scriptum est, quod eruditus fuerit omni sapientia Agyptiorum. To whose catalogue of learned persons, among the Latin Christians Tertullian, Arnobius and several others may be deservedly added. But as St. Austin there well observes, though the Israelites went rich out of Ægypt, yet it was their eating the Passover which saved them from destruction; so though these were accomplished with those perfections and riches of the foul, the ornaments of learning, yet it was their eating the true Passover which was Christ, by their adhering to his doctrine, was that which would be of more advantage to them, than all their accomplishments would be. Now then fince in the first ages of the Christian Church, we find not only innumerable multitudes of persons of great integrity and fobriety in their lives embracing the doctrine of Christ, but so many persons that were curious enquirers after the truth of things, we can certainly have no reason to distrust fuch a Testimony which was received in so unanimous a manner by persons as able to judge of the truth of things, and as fearfull of being deceived in reference to them as any now in the world can be.

2. As this Testimony was received by persons inquisitive after Self. 19. the truth of things, so the doctrine conveyed by it was a matter of the highest moment in the world: and therefore we cannot conceive but persons ordinarily inquisitive about other things would be more than ordinarily to about this, because their eternal welfare and happiness did depend upon it. All persons that are truly religious, must at least be allowed to be persons very inquisitive after the state and condition of their souls when they shall be dislodged from their bodies. And if we do but grant this, can we in any reason think that such a multitude of perfons in so many ages should continue venturing their fouls upon a Testimony which they had no assurance of the truth of? And that none of all these persons, though men otherwise rational and judicious, should be able to discover the falsity of that dostrine they went upon, if at least any upon consideration of it can imagine it to be so? It is not reconcilable with the general presumption of Humane nature concerning Divine providence and the care God takes of the welfare of men, to suffer so many perfons who sincerely desire to serve God in the way which is most pleasing to him, to go on in such a continual delusion, and never have it at all discovered to them. If all then who have believed the doctrine of Christ to be the only way to salvation have been deceived, either we must deny altogether a Divine Providence, or fay the Devil hath more power to deceive men than God to direct them, which is worse than the former; or else affert that there are no fuch things at all as either God or Devils, but that all things come to pass by chance and fortune; and if so, it is still more inexplicable why such multitudes of rational and ferious men, and the most inquisitive part of the world as to fuch things should all be so possessed with the truth and certainty of these things: and the more profane, wicked and ignorant any persons are, the more prone they are to mock and deride them. If fuch men then fee more into truth and reason than the sober and judicious part of mankind, let us bid adieu to humanity and adore the brutes, fince we admire their judgment most who come the nearest to them.

3. The multitude of these persons thus consenting in this Testimony, could have no other engagements to this consent, but only their firm persuasion of the truth of the doctrine conveyed by it; because those who unanimously agree in this thing are such per-

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fons whose other designs and interests in this world, differ as much as any men's do. If it had been only a consent of Jews, there might have been some probable pretence to have suspected a matter of interest in it; but as to this thing, we find the Jews divided among themselves about it; and the stiffest deniers of the truth of it, do yet inviolably preserve those sacred records among them, from which the truth of the doctrine of Christ may be undoubtedly proved. Had the Christian Religion been enforced upon the world by the Roman Emperors at the time of its first promulgation, there would have been some suspicion of particular design in it; but it came with no other strength but the evidence of its own truth; yet it found suddain and strange entertainment among persons of all nations and degrees of men. In a short time it had eaten into the heart of the Roman Empire, and made so large a spread therein, that it made Ter-Apolog. cap. 36. tullian fay, Hesterni sumus, & vestra omnia implevimus, urbes. insulas, castella, municipia, conciliabula, castra ipsa, tribus, decurias, palatium, senatum, forum; sola vobis relinquimus Templa. U e have but newly appeared, faith he, and yet we have filled all places with our company, but only your remples; and before speaking of the Heathens, Obsessam vociterantur civitatem, in agris, in Castellis, in insulis Christianos, omnem sexum, ætatem, conditicnem, etiam dignitatem transgredi ad has nomen quasi detrimento mærent. All forts and conditions of men in all places, were suddenly become Christians. What common tye could there be now to unite all these persons together, if we set aside the undoubted truth and certainty of the doctrine of Christ which was first preached to them by such who were eye-witnesses of Christ's actions, and had left facred records behind them, containing the substance of the doctrine of Christ and those admirable instructions which were their only certain guides in the way to Heaven?

> 4. Because many persons do joyn in this consent with true Christians, who yet could heartily wish that the doctrine of Christianity were not true. Such are all those persons who are sensual in their lives, and walk not according to the rules of the Gospel, yet dare not question or deny the truth of it. Such who could beartily wish there were no future state, nor judgment to come, that they might indulge themselves in this world without fear of another; yet their consciences are so far convinced of, and awed

Apol. c. 1.

awed by the truth of these things, that they raise many perplexities and anxieties in their minds which they would most willingly be rid of; which they can never throughly be, 'till instead of having the name of Christians, they come to live the life of Christians, and become experimentally acquainted with the truth and power of Religion. And withall we find that the more men have been acquainted with the practice of Christianity, the greater evidence they have had of the truth of it, and been more fully and rationally persuaded of it. To such · I grant there are fuch powerfull evidences of the truth of the dostrine of christ by the effectual workings of the Spirit of God upon their fouls, that all other arguments, as to their own satisfaction, may fall short of these. As to which, those verses of the Poet Dantes, rendred into Latin by F. S. are very pertinent and significant; for when he had introduced the Apostle Perer, asking him what it was which his faith was founded. on, he answers,

> Deinde exivit ex luce profunda Quæ illic splendebat pretiosa gemma Super quam omnis virtus fundatur.

i. e. That God was pleased by immediate revelation of himself, to discover that divine truth to the world whereon our faith doth stand as on its sure foundation; but when the Apostle goes on to enquire how he knew this came at first from God, his answer to that is,

Iarga pluvia
Spiritus Sancti, quæ est dissusa
Super veteres & super novas membranas,
Est syllogismus ille qui eam mihi conclusit
Adeo acute, ut præ illa demonstratione
Omnis demonstratio alia mihi videatur obtusa.

i.e. That the Spirit of God doth so fully discover it self both inthe Old and New Testament, that all other arguments are but dult and heavy if compared with this. It is true they are so to a truly inlightned conscience which discovers so much beauty and glory in the Scriptures, that they ravish the soul, although it be unable

unable to give so full an account of this unto others who want the eyes to fee that beauty with, which a heart truly gracious hath. We see ordinarily in the world, that the attraction of beauty is an unaccountable thing; and one may differn that which ravisheth him, which another looks on as mean and ordinary: and why may it not be much more thus in divine objects which want spiritual eyes to discover them? Therefore I grant that good men enjoy that satisfaction to their own Consciences, as to the truth of the Dostrine of Christ, which others cannot attain to; but yet I fav, that fuch do likewise see the most strong, rational and convincing evidence which doth induce them to be. lieve; which evidence is then most convincing, when it is feconded by the peculiar energy of the Spirit of God upon the fouls of true Believers But yet we see that the power and force of the truth of these things may be so great, even upon fuch minds which are not yet moulded into the fashion of true goodness, that it may awe with its light and clearness, where it doth not soften and alter by its heat and influence. Now whence can it be that fuch convictions should stick so fast in the minds of those who would fain pull out those piercing arrows, but that there is a greater power in them than they are masters of, and they cannot frand against the force whereby they come upon them; nor find any salve to cure the wounds which are made within them, but by those weapons which were the causes of them? And therefore when wicked persons under conflicts of conscience, cannot ease themselves by direct Atheism, or finding reason to cast off such convictions by discerning any invalidity in the Testimony whereon the truth of these things depends, it is a certain argument that there is abundant truth in that Testimony, when men would fain persuade themselves to believe the contrary, and yet cannot.

5. The truth of this consent appears, from the unanimity of it among those persons who have yet strangely differed from each other in many controversies in Religion. We see thereby this unanimity is no forced or designed thing, because we see the persons agreeing in this, do very much disagree from each other in other things. And the same grounds and reasons whereon they disagree as to other things, would have held as to these too, were there not greater evidence of the certainty of these things than of those they fall out about. It hath not yet become a question

question among those who differ so much about the sence of Scripture, whether the Scripture its self be the Word of God, although the very accounts on which we are to believe it to be fo. hath been the subject of no mean Controverses. All the divided parts of the Christian world do yet fully agree in the matters of fact, viz. that there was such a person as Fesus Christ, and that he did many great miracles, that he died on the Cross at Jerusalem, and rose again from the dead; now these contain the great foundations of Christian faith, and therefore the multitude of other controversies in the world ought to be so far from weakning our faith, as to the truth of the doctrine of Christ (which men of weak judgments and Atheistical stirits pretend) that it ought to be a strong confirmation of it, when we see persons which so peevishly quarrel with each other about some inferiour and less weighty parts of Religion, do yet unanimously consent in the principal foundations of Christian faith, and fuch whereon the necessity of faith and obedience, as the way to falvation, doth more immediately depend. And this may be one great reason why the infinitely wife God may suffer fuch lamentable contentions and divisions to be in the Christian world, that thereby inquisitive persons may see that if Religion had been a mere design of some few politick persons, the quarrelfome world (where it is not held in by force) would never have confented so long in the owning such common principles which all the other Controversies are built upon. And although it be continually feen that in divided parties, one is apt to run from any thing which is received by the other, and men generally think they can never run far enough from them whose errours they have discovered, that yet this principle hath not carried any confiderable party of the Christian world (out of their indignation against those great corruptions which have crept into the world under a pretence of Religion) to the disowning the foundation of Christian faith, must be partly imputed to the fignal hand of Divine providence, and partly to those strong evidences which there are of the truth of that Testimony which conveys to us the foundations of Christian faith. Thus we see now, how great and uncontrolled this confent is, as to the matters of fact delivered down from the eye-witnesses of them, concerning the actions and miracles of our bleffed Saviour, (which are contained in the Scriptures as authentical records of them,)

them,) and what a fure foundation there is for a firm affent to the truth of the things from so universal and uninterrupted a tradition.

Sect. 20.

36

Thus far we have now manifested the necessity of the miracles of Christ, in order to the prepagation of Christianity in the world, from the confideration of the persons who were to propagate it in the world; the next thing we are to confider, is. the admirable success which the Gospel met with in the world upon its being preached to it: Of which no rational account can be given, unless the astions and miracles of our Saviour were most undoubtedly true. That the Gospel of Christ had very strange and wonderfull success upon its first preaching, hath been partly discovered already, and is withall so plain from the long continuance of it in these European parts, that none any ways conversant in the history of former ages, can have any ground to question it. But that this strange and admirable success of the doctrine of Christ should be an evidence of the Truth of it, and the miracles wrought in confirmation of it. will appear from these two considerations. I. That the doctrine its felf was fo directly contrary to the general inclinations of the world. 2. That the propagation of it was so much opposed by all worldly power.

1. That the doctrine its felf was so epposite to the general inclinations of the world. The doctrine may be considered either as to its credenda, or matters of faith, or as to its agenda, or matters of life and practice; both these were contrary to the inclinations of the world; the sormer seemed hard and incredible,

the latter harsh and impossible.

1. The matters of faith which were to be believed by the world, were not such things which we may imagine the vulgar sort of men would be very forward to run after, nor very greedy to imbrace. 1. Because contrary to the principles of their education, and the Religion they were brought up in; the generality of mankind is very tenacious of those principles and prejudices which are sucked in in the time of Infancy. There are some Religions one would think it were impossible that any rational men should believe them; but only on this account, because they are bred up under them. It is a very great advantage any Religion hath against another, that it comes to speak first, and thereby insimuates such an apprehension of its self to

the mind, that it is very hard removing it afterwards. The understanding seems to be of the nature of those things which are communis juris, and therefore primi funt possidentis; when an opinion hath once got possession of the mind, it usually keeps out what-ever comes to disturb it. Now we cannot otherwise conceive but all those persons who had been bred up under Paganism and the most gross Idolatry, must needs have a very potent prejudice against such a doctrine which was wholly irreconcilable with that Religion which they had been devoted to. Now the ftronger the prejudice is which is conveyed into men's minds by the force of education, the greater strength and power must there needs be in the Golpel of Christ, which did so easily demolish these strong holds, and captivate the understandings of men to the obedience of Christ. To which purpose Arnobius excellently speaks in these words to the Heathens; Sed non creditis gesta hæc. Sed qui ea conspicati sunt sieri & sub oculis Arnob. c. gentes suis viderunt agi, testes optimi certissimique auctores, & credide-1. 1. runt hac ipfi, & credenda posteris nobis hand exilibus cum approbationibus tradiderunt. Quinam isti fortasse quæritis? gentes, populi, nationes & incredulum illud genus humanum. Quod nisi aperta res effet, & luce ipsa quemadmodum dicitur clarior, nunquam rebus hujusmodi credulitatis suæ commodarent assensum. An nunquid dicemus illius temporis homines usque adeo fuisse vanos, mendaces, stolidos, brutos, ut quæ nunquam viderant vidisse se fingerent? & qua facta omnino non erant falsis proderent testimoniis aut puerili assertione sirmarent? Cumque possent vobiscum & unanimiter vivere, & inoffensas ducere conjunctiones, gratuita susciperent odia & execrabili haberentur in nomine? Quod si falsa ut dicitis historia illa rerum est, unde tam brevi tempore totus mundus ista religione completus est? Aut in unam coire qui potuerunt mentem gentes regionibus dissitæ, ventis cælique convexionibus dimota? Asseverationibus illecta sunt nudis, inducta in spes cassas, & in pericula capitis immittere se sponte temeraria desperatione voluerunt, cum nibil tale vidissent quod eas in hos cultus novitatis suæ possit excitare miraculo. Imo quia hæc omnia ab ipso cernebant geri & ab ejus præconibus qui per orbem totum missi beneficia patris & munera sanandis animis hominibusque portabant. veritatis ipsius vi victie, & dederunt se Deo, nec in magnis posuere dispendiis membra vobis projicere, & viscera sua lanianda prabere. The substance of whose discourse is, that it is im-Pp 2 pollible

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Book II.

possible to suppose so many persons of so many Nations to be so far besotted and insatuated, as not only to believe a Religion to be true which was contrary to that they were educated in, but to venture their lives as well as estates upon it, had it not been discovered to them in a most certain and infallible may by such who had been eye-witnesses of the actions and miracles of Christ C. gentes lib. 2. and his Apostles. And as he elsewhere speaks, Vel hac saltem fidem vohis faciant argumenta credendi quod jam per omnes terras in tam brevi tempore & parvo immensi nominis hujus sacramenta diffusa sunt; quod nulla jam natio est tam barbari moris, & mansuetudinem nesciens, qua non ejus amore versa molliverit asteritatem suam, & in placidos sensus assumpta tranquillitate migraverit; quod tam magnis ingeniis præditi Oratores, Grammatici, Rhetores, Consulti juris ac Medici, Philosophia etiam secreta rimantes, magisteria hac expetunt, spretis quibus paulo ante sidebant, &c. Will not this perfuade the world what firm foundations the faith of Christians stands on, when in so short a time it is spread over all parts of the world? that by it the most inhumane and barbarous Nations are softned into more than civility? That men of the greatest wits and parts, Orators, Grammarians, Rhetoricians, Lawyers, Physicians, Philosophers, who not? have forsaken their former sentiments, and adhered to the doctrine of Christ. Now, I fay, if the power of education be so strong upon the minds of men to persuade them of the truth of the Religion they are bred up under, (which Atheistically disposed persons make fo much advantage of,) this is fo far from weakning the truth of Christianity, that it proves a great confirmation of it, because it obtained fo much upon its first Preaching in the world, notwithstanding the highest prejudices from education were against it. If then men be so prone to believe that to be most true, which they have been educated under, it must argue a more than ordinary evidence and power in that Religion which unsettles so much the principles of education, as to make men not only question the truth of them, but to renounce them, and embrace a Religion contrary to them.

Especially when we withall consider what strong holds these Sect. 21. principles of education were backed with among the Heathens, when the doctrine of Christ was fir?t divulged among them, i.e. what plaufible pretences they had of continuing in the Religion which they were brought up in, and why they should not exchange it I. The

for Christianity; and those were,

1. The pretended antiquity of their religion above the Chri-Tertul. ad Nat. fian; the main thing pleaded against the Christians was divor- 1. 1. cap. 10. tium ab institutis majorum, that they thought themselves wiser Symmach ep 1. than their fore-fathers; and Symmachus, Lybanius, and others, Lyban. orat. de plead this most in behalf of Paganism; servanda est tot seculis Templis. fides, & sequendi sunt nobis parentes qui secuti sunt feliciter suos; their religion pleaded prescription against any other, and they were resolved to sollow the steps of their Ancestors wherein they thought themselves happy and secure. Cacilius in Minu- Minut. Felix; tims Felix first argues much against dogmatizing in religion, but p. 6. withall fays it most becomes a lover of truth, Majorum excipere disciplinam, religiones traditas colere, deos quos à parentibus ante imbutus es timere; nec de numinibus ferre sententiam, sed prioribus credere. So Arnobius tells us the main thing objected a- Arnob. c. gent. gainst the Christians was novellam esse religionem nostram, & l. 2. pag. 90. ante dies natam propemodum paucos, neque vos potuisse antequam & patriam linquere, & in barbaros ritus peregrinosque traduci. And Cotta in Tully long before, laid this down as the main De nat, Deorum principle of Pagan-religion, majoribus nostris etiam nulla ratione 1.3. reddita credere, to believe the tradition of our Fathers, although there be no evidence in reason for it: And after he had discovered the vanity of the Stoical arguments about Religion, concludes with this as the only thing he refolved his Religion into. Mihi unum satis erit, majores nostros ita tradidisse, It is enough for me that it comes by tradition from our fore-fathers. Lastantius fully sets forth the manner of pleading used by the Heathens Lactant, de on against the Christians in the point of antiquity. He sunt reli-rig. error, 1.2. giones, quas sibi à majoribus suis traditas, pertinacissime tueri ac c 6. defendere perseverant; nec considerant quales sint, sed ex hoc probatas atque veras esse confidunt, quod eas veteres tradiderunt; tantaque est auctoritas vetustatis, ut inquirere in eam scelus esse dicatur. The English is, They accounted tradition infallible, and knew no other way whereby to find the truth of Religion but by its conveyance from their fore-fathers. How like herein do they steak to those who contend for the corruptions crept into the Christian Church? who make use of the same pretences for them, viz. that they were delivered down from the Fathers; tantaque est auctoritas vetustatis, ut inquirere in eam scelus. esse dicatur; who are we who will see further than Antiquity 3 But it is no wonder if Antiquity be accompanied with dimness

Ambros. ep. c. Symmach.

De orig. error.]. 2. c.6.

C. gent. 1. 2.

of fight; and so it was undoubtedly as to the Pagan world: and as to the Christian too, when such a mixture of Heathenism came into it. And the very same arguments by which the pleaders for Christianity did justifie the truth of their Religion. notwithstanding this pretended antiquity, will with equal force hold for a reformation of fuch inveterate abuses, which under a pretence of Antiquity, have crept into the Christian Church. Nullus pudor est ad meliora transire, saith Ambrose in his answer to Symmachus, what shame is it to grow better? Quid facies? faith Lactantius, majoresne potius an rationem sequeris? Si rationem mavis, discedere te necesse est ab institutis & auctoritate majorum: quoniam id solum rectum est, quod ratio præscribit. Sin autem pietas majores segui suadet: fateris igitur & stultos illos esfe qui excogitatis contra rationem religionibus servierint; & te ineptum qui id colas quod falsum esse conviceris. Where reason and mere authority of fore-fathers stand in competition, he is more a child than a man that knows not on which fide to give his suffrage. But with the greatest strength, and clearest. reason Arnobius speaks in this case. Itaque cum nobis intenditis aversionem à religione priorum, causam convenit ut inspiciatis. non factum, nec quid reliquerimus opponere, sed secuti quid simus potissimum contueri. When you charge us, saith he, that we are revolted from the religion of our fore-fathers, you ought not presently to condemn the fast, but to examine the reasons of it; neither ought you so much to look at what we have left, as what it is we have embraced. Nam si mutare sententiam culpa est ulla vel crimen. & à veteribus institutis in alias res novas voluntatesque migrare, criminatio ista & vos spectat, qui toties vitam consuetudinemque mutastis; qui in mores alios, atque alios ritus priorum condemnatione transitis. If mere departing from the Religion of our ancestors be the great fault, all those who own themselves to be Christians, were themselves guilty of it when they revolted from Heathenism. If it be here said that the case is different, because there was sufficient reason for it, which there is not as to the corruptions of the Christian Church; if fo, then all the dispute is taken off from the matter of fact, or the revolt to the causes inducing to it; and if the Protestant be not able as to the causes of our separation from Rome to manifest that they were sufficient, let him then be triumphed over by the Romanist, and not before. I affert then, and that with

with much affurance of mind, that the principles of the Reformation are justifiable upon the same grounds of reason, which the embracing Christianity was, when men of Heathens became Christians; and that the arguments made use of by the Romanifts against our feparation from them, are such as would have justified a Pagan Philosopher in not embracing Christianity. For if it be unlawfull for any party of men, to divide from others in a matter of Religion which pretends antiquity and universality, it had been unlawfull for a Philosopher to have deferted Paganism, as well as for a Protestant to depart from Rome. For according to the principles of the Romanists, the judgment in the cause of the separation, and of the truth of Religion lies in that party from which we depart; if we do now but apply this to the old Roman Senate or Emperors in the case of Christian Religion and dividing from Heathen Worship, we shall quickly see how easie a matter it will be to make Christianity it felf a Schism, and the dostrine of Christ the greatest herese. But as strong as those pretences were then, or have been fince, the power of the destrine of Christ hath been so great, as to conquer them, and thereby to manifest, that it was of God, when fuch potent prejudices were not able to mithstand it. Of which Antiquity is the first.

2. The large and universal spread of Pagan Religion, when Christianity came into the world; there was never so great Catholicism, as in Heathen Worship, when the Apostles first appeared in the Gentile world. Inde adeo per universa imperia, Minut, in Ostaprovincias, oppida, videmus fingulos facrorum ritus gentiles habere, vio, p. 6. & Deos colere municipes, faith Cæcilius in Minutius Felix. The great charge against the Christians was Novellism, that they brought in a strange and unheard-of Religion. The common Question was, Where was your Religion before Jesus of Nazareth? as it hath been fince, Where was your Religion before Luther? and the same answer which served then, will stand unmovable now, there where no other Religion is, in the Word of God. For this was the weapon whereby the Primitive Christians defended themselves against the assaults of Paganism, and the evidences they brought that the doctrine preached by them, and contained in the Scriptures, was originally from God, were the only means of over-throwing Paganism, notwith-

standing its pretended universality.

3. Settle-

Apol. c. 38.

Observat. in Arnob. l. 4.

Histor. 1. 27. Arnob. 1. 4. Lactant. 1. 5. 6. 11.

3. Settlement by Laws of Heathen Worship. This was fo much pretended and pleaded for, that as far as we can find, by the History of the Primitive Church, the pretence on which the Christians suffered, was sedition, and opposing the established Laws. The Christians were reckoned inter illicitas factiones. as appears by Tertullian, among unlawfull Corporations; the Politicians and States-men were all for preserving the Laws; they troubled not themselves much about any Religion, but only that which was fettled by Law, they fought to uphold, because the asting contrary to it might bring some disturbance to the civil State. There were feveral Lams which the Chrifians were then brought under, and condemned for the breach 1. The Law against Heteria, or Conventicles, as they were pleased frequently to style the meeting of Christians together; thence the places where the Christians assembled for worship, were commonly called Conventicula; Ita appellabant loca, faith Heraldus, ubi congregabantur Christiani oraturi, & verbi divini interpretationem accepturi, ac sacras Synaxes habituri: but Elmenhorstius more shortly; Conventicula loca sunt ubi Christiani congregati orare consueverunt. The places where the Christians did meet and pray together, were called Conventicles: in Easilica Sicinnini ubi ritus Christiani est conventiculum, faith Ammianus Marcellinus; cur immaniter conventicula dirui? faith Arnobius; qui universum populum cum ipso pariter conventiculo concremavit, as Lactantius likewise speaks. Now the reafon of the name was, because the Heathens judged these assemblies of Christians to be Illegal Societies. For which we are to understand; that in the time of the Roman Emperours, when they grew suspicious of their own safety, they severely prohibited all those Sodalitia, or Societies and Colledges, which were very much in use in the Roman Common-wealth, in imitation of the iraieia in the Cities of Greece. These were such societies of persons, which voluntarily confederated together either for some particular design, or for preserving Love and Friend-Thip among each other, and thence had their frequent meetings in common together. Now the more numerous these were, and the more closely they confederated, the more jealous eye the Roman Emperours had upon them, because of some clandestine designs, which they suspected might be carried on for disturbance of the publick Peace in such suspicious meetings. Thence came

came out many particular Edicts of the Emperours against all

Now when the Christians began to be somewhat numerous,

fuch kinds of societies.

and had according to the principles of their Religion frequent Assemblies for Divine worship, and did confederate together by fuch Symbols, of being washed with water, and eating and drinking together (which was all the Heathens apprehended by their use of Baptism, and the Lord's Supper) the Pro-consuls and other Magistrates in their several Provinces bring the Christians under these Edicts, and so punished them for the breach of the Laws. Which as appears by Pliny his Epistle to Trajan was Lib. 10. ep. 97. the only account on which the wifer Heathens did proceed against the Christians; for we see he troubled not himself much about the truth and evidence of Christian Religion, but such persons were brought before him, and after he had interrogated them whether they were Christians, or no, several times, if they persisted, he then punished them not so much for their Religion, as for their obstinacy and contempt of authority. For fo much is implied in those words of his, Neque enim dubitabam, qualecunque effet quod faterentur, pervicaciam certe, & inflexibilem obstinationem debere puniri: That what-ever their Religion was, their obstinacy and disobedience deserved punishment. That which the Christians now pleaded for themselves, why they should not be reckoned among the factions of the people, was that which they gave in answer to Pliny, that all their fault was, Quod essent soliti stato die ante lucem convenire, carmenque Christo quasi Deo dicere secum invicem; seque sacramento non in scelus aliquod obstringere, sed ne furta, ne latrocinia, ne adulteria committerent, ne fidem fallerent, ne depositum appellati abnegarent. That they were wont upon their folemn days to meet together for divine worship, and to covenant with each other only for the practice of those things which were as much for the good of mankind as their own, viz. that they would not wrong and defraud others, as to their bodies or estates. And Tertullian ap- Apolog. cap. 38 proves of the Law against factions, as de providentia & modestia publica, ne civitas in partes scinderetur, as wisely intended to prevent Seditions; but withall pleads, that the society of Christians could not be reckoned inter illicitas factiones; for, saith he, hæc coitio Christianorum merito sane illicita si illicitis par; merito damnanda si quis de ea queritur eo titulo quo de factioni-

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bus querela est. In cujus perniciem aliquando convenimus? Hoc sumus congregati quod & dispersi; hoc universi quod & singuli; neminem ladentes, neminem contristantes; quum probi, quum boni coeunt, quum pii, quum casti congregantur, non est factio dicenda sed curia. If, saith he, the societies of Christians were like others, there might be some reason to condemn them, under the head of factions: but as long as we meet together for no man's injury, that whether divided, or assembled, we are still the fame, that we grieve and injure no body; when fuch a company of good men meet together, it is rather a Council than a Faction.

2. Another Law the Christians were brought under, was,

that against Innovations in Religion; thence it was laid so much to the charge of the Christians, that they did \(\text{n} v \) \(\pi \alpha \). earbuws, go contrary to the established Law; as Porphyrie said Apud Euseb 1.6. of Origen, because he was a Christian, he did xeistavas (no x) Eccles. hist. cap. Searouws, and when he speaks of Ammonius revolting from Christianity to Paganism, ευθύς προς την κτι νόμες πολιβείαν μεθεβάλετο, he turned to the way of life, which was agreeable to the eftablished Laws. Now Christianity was every-where looked on as a great Innovation, infomuch that the Christians were ac-

Tertul Apol c.4. cused to be legum, morum, naturæ inimici, as enemies to mankind as well as the Laws, because they drew men off from that way of Religion which mankind had generally agreed in. Thence Amilianus the Prafect of Agypt, when he bids the Chri-

Apud Euseb. Eccl. bift. 1.7. flians return to Paganism, he used these expressions, on no x? cap. II. φύσιν τέξπεδαι όπιλαθέδαι ή την βρά φύσιν, to return to the common sence of mankind, and to forget what was so much against it, as he supposed Christianity to be. When Paul preached at Athens, his first accusation was, that he was a Preacher of strange Deities, because he preached to them Jesus and the resurrection. And Demetrius at Ephesus knew no such potent ar-Act: 17. 18.

gument against Paul, as that his Religion destroyed the worship of Diana, whom all Asia and the world worship. So that the Primitive Christians were then accounted the Antipodes to the whole world, on which account they were fo feverely dealt with; most Common-wealths observing the counsel of Mecanas

to Augustus, in Dio, to be fure to have a watchfull eye upon all Innovations in Religion, because they tend so much to the disturbance of the Civil State. 3. The

2. The Law of Sacriledge. Thence La Hantius calls their Laws, Constitutiones Sacrileg a. Quin etiam sceleratissimi bomi- Lastant. 1. 5. cidæ contra pios jura impia condiderunt; nam & constitutiones cap. 11. Sacrilega, & disputationes Jurisperitorum leguntur injusta; and as he tells us, Domitius Ulpianus had collected all those Rescripta nefaria together, which concerned the Christians; from hence it was, Christianity by Pliny, is called amentia, by Plin ep 1. 10. Tacitus exitiabilis superstitio, by Suetonius Superstitio nova & Tacit. An. 1.15. exitiabilis; fo much did these three great men agree, in con- sueton. in Nedemning the best Religion in the world for madness, and new, rone. and detestable Superstition; the ground of the great pique was, the enmity declared by Christians against the Idolatrous Temples,

and worship of the Heathens.

4. The Law against Treason; for sometimes they proceeded fo high, as to accuse the Christians lase Majestatis, and thence Tertul Ap. 6.27. they are commonly called publici hostes, enemies to all civil c. 35. Government. Which they inferr'd from hence: 1. Because they would not sacrifice for the Emperour's safety; Ideo commit- Apol. c. 29. timus, saith Tertullian, in Majestatem Imperatorum, quia illos non subjicimus rebus suis; Quia non ludimus de officio salutis eorum, qui eam non putamus in manibus esse plumbatis. The accusation for Treason lay in their refusing to supplicate the Idols for the Emperour's welfare. 2. Because they would not swear by the Emperour's Genius. Thence Saturnius faid to the Mar- Herald, in Tertyr, Tantum jura per genium Cæsaris nostri, if he would but tul. fwear by the Genius of Casar, he should be saved. Yet though Apol. cap. 29. they refused to swear by the Emperour's Genius, they did not refuse to testifie their Allegiance, and to swear by the Emperour's safety. Sed & juramus, saith Tertullian, sicut non per ge- Apol. c. 32. nios Casarum, ita per salutem eorum qua est augustior omnibus geniis. 2. Because they would not worship the Emperours as Gods; which was then grown a common custom. Non enim Deum Imperatorem dicam, vel quia mentiri nescio, vel quia illum deridere non audeo, vel quia nec ipse se Deum volet dici si homo sit, as the same Authour speaks. Nay the Primitive Christians were very scrupulous of calling the Emperour Dominus, hoc enim Dei est cognomen, because the name Lord was an attribute of God's, and applied as his name to him in Scripture. The reason of this Scrupulosity was not, from any question they made of the Sovereignty of Princes, or their obliga-

Qq2 tion. Cap. 34.

tion to obedience to them, (which they are very free in the acknowledgment of,) but from a jealousie and just suspicion that something of Divine honour might be implied in it, when the adoration of Princes was grown a custom. Therefore Tertullian to prevent mis-understandings, saith, Dicam plane Imperatorem Dominum, sed more Communi, sed quando non cogor ut Dominum Dei vice dicam. They refused not the name in a common sence, but as it implied Divine honour.

4. Because they would not observe the publick festivals of the

Cap. 35. of pe licent bauch relig

Cap. 38.

Emperors in the way that others did, which it feems were obferved with abundance of loofeness and debauchery by all forts of persons; and as Tertullian smartly says, Malorum morum licentia pietas erit; & occasio luxuriæ religio deputabitur? Debauchery is accounted a piece of loyalty, and intemperance a part of religion. Which made the Christians rather hazard the reputation of their loyalty, than bear a part in fo much rudeness as was then used, and thence they abhorred all the solemn spectacles of the Romans; Nihil est nobis, faith the same Author, dictu, visu, auditu, cum insania Circi, cum impudicitia Theatri, cum atrocitate arenæ, cum Xysti vanitate. They had nothing to do either with the madness of the Cirque, or the immodesty of the Theatre, or the cruelty of the Amphitheatre, or the vanity of the publick wrestlings. We see then what a hard Province the Christians had, when so many Laws were laid as bird-lime in their way to catch them, that it was impossible for them to profels themselves Christians, and not run into a præmunire by their Laws. And therefore it cannot be conceived that many out of affectation of novelty should then declare themselves Christians, when so great hazards were run upon the profesfing of it. Few foft-spirited men, and lovers of their own ease, but would have found some fine distinctions and nice evafions to have reconciled themselves to the publick Laws by such things which the Primitive Christians so unanimously refused, when tending to Prophaneness or Idolatry. And from this difcourse we cannot but conclude with the Apostle Paul, That the weapons whereby the Apostles and Primitive Christians encoun-

frong and powerfull, in that they obtained so great a conquest over the imaginations and carnal reasonings of men (which were their strong holds they secured themselves in) as to make them

readily

readily to forfake their Heathen worship, and become chearfull fervants to Christ. Thus we see the power of the dostrine of Christ, which prevailed over the principles of education, though backt with pretended antiquity, universality, and establishment

by civil Laws.

But this will further appear if we consider that not only Sect. 22. the matters of faith were contrary to the principles of education, but because many of them seemed incredible to men's natural reason; that we cannot think persons would be overforward to believe fuch things. Every one being fo ready to take any advantage against a Religion which did so little flatter corrupt nature either as to its power or capacity; insomuch that those who preached this Dostrine, declared openly to the world, that such persons who would judge of the Christian Doctrine, by fuch principles which mere natural reason did proceed upon (fuch one I suppose it is whom the Apostle calls Ψυμκὸς ἄνθεωπΦ, one that owned nothing but natural reason, I Cor. 2. 14. whereby to judge of Divine Truths) could not entertain matters of faith, or of Divine revelation, because such things would feem but folly to him that owned no higher principle than Philosophy, or that did not believe any Divine inspiration; neither can such a one know them, because a Divine revelation is the only way to come to a thorough understanding of them: and a person who doth not believe such a Divine revelation, it is impossible he should be a competent judge of the truth of the Dostrine of Christ. So that the only ground of receiving the Doctrine of the Gospel is upon a Divine revelation, that God himself by his Son and his Apostles, hath revealed these deep mysteries to the world, on which account it is we are bound to receive them, although they go beyond our reach and comprehension. But we see generally in the Heathen world how few of those did believe the Dostrine of Christ in comparison, who were the great admirers of the Philosophy, and way of learning which was then cried up: the reason was, because Circificanity not only contained far deeper mysteries than any they were acquainted with, but delivered them in fuch a way of authority, commanding them to believe the doctrine they preached on the account of the Divine Authority of the revealers of it. Such a way of proposal of dostrines to the world the Philosophy of the Greeks was unacquainted with, which on

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that account they derided as not being fuited to the exact method which their sciences proceeded in. No doubt had the Apostles come among the Greeks of monning our moias with a great deal of pomp and oftentation, and had fed men's curiofities with vain and unnecessary speculations, they might have had as many followers among the Greeks for their sakes, as Christ had among the Jews for the fake of the loaves. But the matters of the Gospel being more of inward worth and moment, than of outward pomp and shew, the vain and empty Greeks presently find a quarrel with the manner of proposing them; that they came not in a way of clear demonstration, but stood so much upon faith as foon as they were delivered. Thence Celfus and Galen think they have reason enough to reject the Laws of Mofes and Christ, because Celsus calls them vours avanoscinles, Ga-Orig. L. I. C. Celf. len Christianity, States Biv avano femlor, that they were fuch Gal. de differ. doctrines which require faith and obedience, without giving puls. lib. 2. c.4. men's reason an account of the things commanded. As though the authority of a Legislator sufficiently manifested, were not enough to enforce a Law, unless a sufficient account were given of the thing required to the purblind reason of every individual person acted by passions and private interests, as to the justice and equity of it. And so the primary obligation on man's part to faith and obedience, must arise not from the evidence of Divine Authority, but of the thing it felf which is revealed, to the most partial judgment of every one to whom it is proposed. Which those who know how short the stock of reason is at the best in men, and how easily that which is, is fashioned and moulded according to prejudices and interests already entertained, will look upon only as a design to comply with the carnal desires of men, in that thereby none shall be bound to go any further, than this blind and corrupted guide shall lead them. Now these being the terms on which the Gospel of Christ must have expected entertainment in the Gentile world, how im-

possible had it been ever to have found any success among men, had there not been sufficient evidence given by a power of miracles, that however strange and incredible the dostrine might seem, yet it was to be believed, because there was sufficient means to convince men that it was of Divine revela-

tion.

Neither

Neither were the matters of faith only contrary to the in- Sect. 22. clinations of the world, but so were the precepts of life or those things in Christianity which concerned practice. There are two things which are the main scope and design of Christianity in reference to men's lives, and to take them off from their fins, and from the world; and of all things these are they which men's hearts are so bewitched with. Now the precepts of the Gospel are such which require the greatest purity of heart and Mat. 5. 8, 16, life, which call upon men to deny themselves, and all ungodli- Tit. 2. 12. ness, and worldly lusts, and to live soberly, and righteously, and 2 Tim. 2. 19. godly in this present world; that, all that name the name of Christ 2 Cor. 7. 1. must depart from iniquity; that, all true Christians must be cleansed from all filthiness of flesh and spirit, and must perfect boliness in the fear of God. And the Gospel enforceth these precepts of holiness with the most terrible denunciations of the wrath of God on those who disobey them; that, the Lord Jesus 2 Thes. 1. 7,8: Christ shall be revealed from Heaven with his mighty Angels in flaming fire, taking vengeance on them that know not God, and that obey not the Gospel of Jesus Christ. That, the wrath of God Rom. 1. 18. is revealed from Heaven against all ungodliness and unrighteousness of men, who hold the truth in unrighteousness. That, no 1 Cor. 6. 9, 10. persons who live in the habitual practice of any known sin, shall Gal. 4. 20. inherit the Kingdom of God. That, no man should deceive them Ephef. 5. 5, 6. with vain words, for because of these things comes the wrath of God upon the children of disobedience; that men do but vainly flatter themselves when they seek to reconcile unholy lives with the hopes of future happiness; for without holiness, no man shall Heb. 12. 14. fee the Lord. And then in reference to the things of this prefent life which men busie themselves so much about, the Gospel declares, that, they who love this world, the love of the Father 1 Joh. 2. 14is not in them; that, the friendship of this world is enmity with God; and whosoever will be a friend of the world is an enemy to James 4. 4. God: That Christians must not set their affections on Earth, but Col. 3. 1, 2. Phil. 3. 20. on the things in Heaven; That the conversation of true Christians Mat. 6. 20. is in Heaven. That, we ought not to lay up our treasure on 2 Cor. 4.18. Earth, but in Heaven; That, we must not look at the things which are seen, but at the things which are not seen; for the things which are seen are temporal, but the things which are not feen are eternal. Now the whole design of the doctrine of Christ being to perfuade men to lead a holy and heavenly life while they

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Col. 1. 12.

Rom. 1. 16.

are in this world, and thereby to be made meet to be partakers of the inheritance with the Saints in light, can we think fo many men whose hearts were wedded to sin, and the world, could fo suddenly be brought off from both without a divine power accompanying that dostrine which was preached to them? And therefore the Apostle faith, & επαιούνομαι το ευαγγέλιον το χεισο, I am not ashamed of the Gospel of Christ; i. e. though the Gospel of Christ be the only true mystery, yet I do not by it as the Heathens are wont to do with their famous Eleusinian mysteries which were kept so secret by all the mysta and iniviou; but, faith he, I know no reason I have to be ashamed of any thing in the Gospel, that I should labour its concealment to advance its veneration; but the more publick the Gospel is, the more it manifests its power; for through it God is pleased mightily to work, in order to the salvation both of Jew and Gentile. And of all the success of the Gospel, that upon the hearts and lives of men deserves the greatest consideration. The great efficacy and power of the Gospel was abundantly

feen in that great alteration which it wrought in all those who were the hearty imbracers of it. The Philosophers did very frequently and deservedly complain of the great inefficacy of all their moral precepts upon the minds of men, and that by all their instructions, politiora non meliora, ingenia funt, men improved more in knowledge than goodness, but now Christianity not only enforced duties on men with greater power and authority: For the Scriptures do, as Saint Austin speaks, Non tanquam ex Philosophorum concertationibus strepere, sed tanquam ex oraculis & Dei nubibus intonare, not make some obstreperous clamours, like those tinkling Cymbals, the Philosophers, but awe the fouls of men with the majesty of that God from whom they came. Neither was it only a great and empty found which was heard in the preaching of the Gospel; but when God thundred therein, he broke down the stately Cedars, and shook the Pfal. 29. 5,8,9. Wilderness, and made the Hinds to Calve, (as it is said of Thunder, called the voice of the Lord in Scripture,) he humbled the pride of men, unsetled the Gentile world from its former foundations, and wrought great alterations on all those who hearkened to it. The whole design of the Gospel is couched in those words which Saint Paul tells us were spoken to him by Christ

himself, when he appointed him to be an Apostle, to open

August. de Ciwit. Dei, l. 2. c. 19.

men's eyes, and to turn them from darkness to light, and from A&s 26. 18. the power of Satan unto God, that they may receive forgiveness of fins, and inheritance among them which were sanctified by faith in Christ. And the efficacy of this doctrine in order to these great ends, was abundantly seen in the preaching of that Apostle, who was so instrumental in converting the world to piety and sobriety, as well as to the dostrine of Christ. What strange persons were the Corinthians before they became Christians! for when the Apostle had enumerated many of the vilest persons of the world, he presently adds, And such were some I Cor. 6.10,11. of you; but ye are washed, but ye are sanctified, but ye are justified in the name of the Lord Fesus, and by the spirit of our God. The more dangerous the distemper is, the more malignant its nature; the more inveterate its continuance, the greater the efficacy of the remedy which works a cure of it. The power of grace is the more feen in conversion, the greater the sins have been before it. It is an easie matter in comparison to remove a disease at its first on-set, of what it is to cure it when it becomes Chronical. The power of the Gospel wrought upon all forts and kinds of persons to manifest to the world there was no distemper of men's souls so great, but there was a possibility of a remedy for it; and not only so, but pregnant and visible instances were given of the power and efficacy of it. For they themfelves shew of us, faith the Apostle, what manner of entring in 1 Thes. 1.9,10 we had among you, and how ye turned to God from Idols, to serve the living and true God, and to wait for his Son from Heaven, whom he raised from the dead, even Jesus, which delivered us from the wrath to come. Now that which manifests the exceeding great power and excellency of the Gospel, was, that it not only turned men from one way of worship to another, which is a matter of no great difficulty, but that it turned men together with that from their lusts and sensuality, to a holy and unblameable life. For men being more in love with their fins, than with their opinions, it must needs be a greater power which draws men from the practice of habitual fins, than that which only makes them change their opinions, or alter the may of worship they were brought up in. This is that which Origen throughout his Books against Celsus traumphs in as the most signal evidence of a Divine power in the Doctrine of hrift, that it wrought so great an alteration on all that truly em-Rr braced 29-1

braced it, that of vitious, debauched, and dissolute, it made C. Celsum, l. 2. them temperate, sober, and religious, on mosts dr. Spans soms espes p. 78.85. lib.1. and The rivers of nakov, on + xt pious pt owago vives if the Asimov Lee Tov Blov. The Doctrine of Christ did convert the most p. 21. wicked persons who embraced it, from all their debaucheries, to a life most suitable to nature and reason, and to the practice of all vertues. Therefore certainly the Gospel could not want that commendation among all ingenuous Moralists, that it was the most excellent instrument in the world to reform the lives of men, and to promote real goodness in it. When they could not but take notice of fo many persons continually so brought off from their follies and vain conversations, to a life, serious, fober, and unblameable; nay and some of the Christians were of so much integrity and goodness, that their greatest enemies were forced to fay that their only fault was, that they were Christians. Bonus vir Cajus Sejus, tantum quod Christianus. A very good man, only a Christian. But one would think this finould have made them have a higher opinion of Christianity, when it did fo fuddenly make fo many good men in the world. Especially when this power was so manifest on such persons who were supposed uncapable of being reformed by Philosophy, young, illiterate, and mean-spirited persons; therefore it may be justly supposed that it was not by the strength of their own reason that this alteration was wrought within them, but by that Divine power which was able to tame the most unruly; to instruct the most ignorant, to raise up the most sordid persons to fuch a generous temper, as to flight the good things of this life, in comparison with those to come. And so remarkable was the difference of life then between those that were Christians, and those who were not (as there is still between true Christians, and mere pretenders) that Origen dares Celsus to Orig. c. Celf.1.3. compare them in point of morality with any other Societies in

> the world as 28 78 Des Xeis & madrade Tous Ennancias, Curegeraloμεναι τ ων παροικέσι δήμων εκκλησίαις, ως φωσηρές είσιν ον κόσμω τίς · 28 ER av Suchoyinal ni TES zeless of and f chranoias, xi Cuy yeith Βελπόνων ελάπες, πολλών κρείπες πυγχάνειν που το πίς διμοις δκnanoiw; For the Churches of God, which are discipled to Christ, being compared with other Societies, shine among them like lights in the world. For who can but confess, that even the worser

p. 128.

part

part of the Christian Churches exceeds the best of the popular Assemblies? For, as he goes on, the Church of God which is at Athens, that is weasid no ni susa Dis, very quiet and peaceable, because it seeks to approve it self to God; but the popular Assembly at Athens that is sacidons, seditious and quarrelsome, and in nothing comparable to the Church of God there. So it is, if we compare the Churches of Corinth and Alexandria with the Afsemblies of the people there. So that any candid inquirer after truth will exceedingly wonder (how fuch fair Islands should appear nantes in gurgite vasto, in the midst of such a Sea of wickedness as it was in those Cities) how these Churches of God should be planted in such rude and prophane places. So the same Authour goes on to compare the Church's Senate with that of the Cities, the Church's Officers with theirs, and appeals to themselves, that even those among them who were most lukewarm in their office, did yet far exceed all the City-Magistrates in all manner of vertues. From whence he rationally concludes, εί ή ταυθ' ετως έχει, πως εκ εύλορον μεν νομίζειν περί τε 'Ιπού το. σαύτα (υςήσαι δεδυνημένε, όπ έκ ή πυχέσα, θειότης ω τν άυπος; If these things be so, how can it but be most rational to adore the Divinity of Jesus, who was able to accomplish such great things? And that not upon one or two, but upon fuch great multitudes as were then converted to the Christian faith. We read of one Phædon, and one Polemon brought from their debaucheries by Socrates and Xenocrates, but what are these compared with those who were turned from their sins to God by the Gospel of Christ! και Φρά μεν τοις Ελλησιν, είς τις Φαίδων και έκ Orig. I.I. p.50. διδα εί δεύτες Θ, καὶ ξις Πολέμων, μεταβαλόντες ἀπὸ ἀσώτε καὶ μοχ-Σερσάτε βίε, εριλοσόρησαν Τρά ή τω Inσε ε μόνοι τότε οί δώδεκα, αλλ' αεί και πολλαπλασίες, &c. The twelve Apostles were but the first-fruits of that plentifull Harvest of Converts which followed afterwards. And although Celsus (like an Epicurean) Orig. 1.3 p. 150. feems to deny the possibility of any such thing as conversion, because customary sins become a second nature, that no punishments can reform them; Yet, saith Origen, herein he not only contradicts us Christians, but all such as were Auvaius pinocognouvres, who owned any generous principles of Philosophy, and did not despair of recovering vertue, as a thing feasible by humane nature, and gives instances ad hominem, to prove the possibility of the thing from the ancient Heroes, Hercules and Vlylles, from

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the

the two Philosophers, Socrates and Musonius, and the two famous converts to Philosophy, Phadon and Polemon. But yet faith he, these are not so much to be wondred at, that the eloanence and reason of the Philosophers should prevail on some very few persons, but that the mean and contemptible language of the Apostles should convert such multitudes from intemperance to sobriety, from injustice to fair-dealing, from cowardice to the highest constancy, yea so great as to lay down their lives for the sake. of vertue; how can we but admire so divine a power as was seen in it? And therefore, faith he, we conclude, on to Dela Nova. αμεί ται κακίαν φυσιώσασάν όξιν ε μόνον εκ άδυνατον, άλλα και ε πανυ xanener. That it is so far from being impossible, that it is not at all difficult for corrupt nature to be changed by the word of God. Lastantide falf. Lastantius excellently manifests that Philosophy could never do sap. 1.3. c. 25. so much good in the world as Christianity did, because that was not fuited at all to common capacities, and did require so much skill in the Arts to prepare men for it, which it is impossible all should be well skilled in, which yet are as capable of being happy, as any others are. And how inefficacious the precepts: of Philosophy were, appears by the Philosophers themselves, who were far from having command by them over their Masterless passions, and were fain sometimes to confess that nature was too head-strong to be kept in by fuch weak reins as the precepts of Philosophy were: But, faith he, what great command divine precepts have upon the souls of men, daily experience shews. Da mihi virum qui sit iracundus, maledicus, effrenatus; paucissimis Dei verbis, tam placidum quam ovem reddam. Da cupidum, avarum, tenacem; jam tibi eum liberalem dabo, & pecuniam suam plenis manibus largientem. Da timidum doloris ac mortis; jam cruces, & ignes, taurum contemnet. Da libidinosum, adulterum, ganeonem; jam sobrium, castum, continentem videbis. Da crudelem, & sanguinis appetentem; jam in veram clementiam furor ille mutabitur. Da injustum, insipientem, peccatorem; continuo & aguns, & prudens, & innocens erit. In which words that elegant writer doth by a Rhetorical Scheme set out the remarkable alteration which was in any who became true Christians, that although they were passionate, covetous, fearfull, lustfull, cruel, unjust, vitious, yet upon their being Christians, they became mild, liberal, courageous, temperate, mercifull, just and unblameable; which never any were brought to by mere Philosophys

Cap. 26.

phy, which rather teacheth the art of concealing vices, than of healing them. But now when Christianity was so effectual in the cure of those distempers, which Philosophy gave over as beyond its skill and power, when it cured them with fo great success, and that not in a Paracelsian way, for them to relapse afterwards with greater violence, but it did so throughly unfettle the fomes morbi, that it should never gather to so great a head again; doth not this argue a power more than Philosophical, and that could be no less than Divine power which tended fo much to reform the world, and to promote true

goodness in it?

Thus we have considered the contrariety of the doctrine of Sect. 24. Christ to men's natural inclinations, and yet the strange success it had in the world, which in the last place will appear yet more strange, when we add the almost continual opposition it met with from worldly power and policy. Had it been possible for a cunningly-devised fable, or any mere contrivance of imposters to have prevailed in the world, when the most potent and subtile persons bent their whole wits and designs for suppressing it? Whatever it were in others, we are fure of some of the Roman Emperours, as Julian and Dioclesian, that it was their master-design to root out and abolish Christianity; and was it only the subtilty of the Christians which made these persons give over their work in despair of accomplishing it? If the Christians were such subtile men, whence came all their enemies to agree in one common calumny, that they were a company of poor, weak, ignorant, inconsiderable men! and if they were so, how came it to pass. that by all their power and wisdom they could never exterminate these persons; but as they cut them down, they grew up the faster, and multiplied by their substraction of them! There was fomething then certainly peculiar in Christianity, from all other dostrines, that it not only was not advanced by any civil power, but it got ground by the opposition it met with in the world. And therefore it is an observable circumstance, that the first Christian Emperour (who acted as Emperour for Christianity) viz. Constantine (for otherwise I know what may be faid for Philippus) did not appear in the world 'till Christianity had fpread it felf over most parts of the habitable world. God thereby letting us fee, that though the civil power, when become Christian, might be very usefull for protesting Chri-Stianity.

stianity, yet that he stood in no need at all of it, as to the Propagation of it abroad in the world. But we fee it was quite otherwise in that Religion which had Mars its ascendant, viz. Mahometism; For like Paracelsus his Dæmon, it always sate upon the pummel of the fword, and made its way in the world merely by force and violence; and as its first constitution had much of blood in it, so by it hath it been fed and nourished ever fince. But it was quite otherwise with the Christian Religion; it never thrived better than in the most barren places, nor triumphed more, than when it suffered most; nor spread it felf further than when it encountered the greatest opposition. Because therein was seen the great force and efficacy of the doctrine of Christ, that it bore up men's spirits under the greatest miseries of life, and made them with chearfulness to undergo the most exquisite terments which the cruelty of Tyrants could invent. The Stoicks and Epicureans boasts that their wife man would be happy in the Bull of Phalaris, were but empty and Thrasonical words, which none would venture the truth of by an experiment upon themselves. It was the Christian alone, and not the Epicurean, that could truly say in the midst of torments, Suave est & nihil curo, and might justly alter a little of that common saying of the Christians, and fay, Non magna loquimur, sed patimur, as well as vivimus; the Christians did not steak great things, but do and suffer them. And this gained not only great reputation of integrity to themselves, but much advanced the honour of their Religion in the world, when it was so apparently seen, that no force or power was able to withfland it. Will not this at least persuade you that our Religion is true, and from God, saith Arnobius? Quod cum genera panarum tanta sint à vebis proposita Religionis hujus sequentibus leges, augeatur res magis, & contra omnes minas atque interdista formidinum animosus populus obnitatur, & ad credendi studium, probibitionis ipsius stimulis excitetur? --- Itane istud non divinum & sacrum est, aut sine Deo, eorum tantas animorum fieri conversiones ut cum carnifices unci, aliique innumeri cruciatus, quemadmodum diximus, impendeant credituris, veluti quadam dulcedine, atque omnium virtutum amore corretti, cognitas accipiant rationes, atque mundi omnibus rebus præponant amicitias Christi? That no fears, penalties, or torments, were able to make a Christian alter his profession, but he would rather bid

Arnob. 1. 2. c. gentes.

bid adieu to his Life than to his Saviour. This Origen likewise Lib. 1. c. Celfrequently takes notice of, when Celfus had objected the novel- fum, p. 21. ty of Christianity; The more wonderfull it is (faith Origen) that V. etiam, l. 2. in so short a time it should so largely spread it self in the world; P. 110. for if the cure of men's bodies be not wrought without Divine Providence, how much less the cure of so many thousands of souls which have been converted at once to Humanity and Christianity. especially when all the powers of the world were from the first engaged to hinder the progress of this doctrine, and yet notwithfranding all this opposition, evinnoe, un περυκώς κωλύεδωι ώς λόγ [Αξ κ) γρόμεν Φ πού των αν αγαρωνις των ίγρες τες Φ, πάσης μεν Έλλας Φ, δτί πλείον ή τ βαςβάς ελράτησε, καὶ μετεποίησε μυρίας όσας ψυχάς 3th The nat autor Desselman. The Word of God prevailed, as not being able to be stopt by men, and became Master over all its enemies, and not only spread it self quite through Greece, but through a great part of the world besides, and converted an innumerable company of souls to the true worship and service of God. Thus we have now manifested from all the circumstances of the propagation of the dostrine of Christ, what evidence there was of a Divine power accompanying of it, and how usefull the first miracles were in order to it.

CHAP. X.

The difference of true Miracles from false.

The unreasonableness of rejecting the evidence from miracles, because of impostures. That there are certain rules of distinguishing true miracles from false, and divine from diabolical, proved from God's intention in giving a power of miracles, and the providence of God in the world. The inconvenience of taking away the rational grounds of faith, and placing it on self-evidence. Of the self-evidence of the Scriptures, and the insufficiency of that for resolving the question about the authority of the Scriptures. Of the pretended miracles of Impostors and false Christs, as Barchochebas, David el-David and others. The rules whereby to judge true miracles from false. 1. True Divine miracles are wrought to confirm a Divine testimony. No miracles necessary for the certain conveyance of a Divine testimony: proved from the evidences that the Scriptures could not be corrupted. 2. No miracles Divine which contradict Divine revelation. Of Popish miracles. 2. Divine miracles leave Divine effects on those who believe them. Of the miracles of Simon Magus. 4. Divine miracles tend to the overthrow of the Devil's power in the world: the antipathy of the Dostrine of Christ to the Devil's design in the world. 5. The distinction of true miracles from others. from the circumstances and manner of their operation. The miracles of Christ compared with those of the Heathen Gods. 6. God makes it evident to all impartial judgments that Divine miracles exceed Created power. This manifested from the unparallell'd miracles of Moses and our Saviour. From all which the rational evidence of Divine revelation is manifested, as to the persons whom God imploys to teach the world.

Aving thus far stated the cases wherein miracles may justly be expected as a rational evidence of Divine authority in the persons whom God imploys by way of peculiar message to the world, and in the prosecution of this discourse mani-

manifested the evidences of Divine authority in Moses and the Prophets, and in our Saviour and his Apostles; the only remaining question concerning this subject, is, How we may certainly distinguish true and real miracles from such as are only pretended and counterfeit? For it being as evident that there have been impostures and delusions in the world as real miracles, the minds of men will be wholly to feek when to rely upon the evidence of miracles as an argument of Divine authority in those persons who do them, unless a way be found out to distinguish them from each other. But if we can make it appear, that, unless men through weakness of judgment or incogitancy deceive themselves, they may have certain evidence of the truth of miracles, then there can be nothing wanting as to the establishment of their minds in the truth of that Do-Etrine which is confirmed by them. There hath been nothing which hath made men of better affections than understandings, fo ready to suspect the strength of the evidence from miracles concerning Divine testimony, as the multitude of impostures in the world under the name of miracles, and that the Scripture it felf tells us we must not hearken to such as come with lying wonders. But may we not therefore fafely rely on such miracles which we have certain evidence could not be wrought but by Divine power, because for footh the Devil may sometimes abuse the ignorance and credulity of unwary men? or is it because the Scripture forbids us to believe such as should come with a pretence of miracles, therefore we cannot rely on the miracles of Christ himself? which is as much as to say, because the Scripture tells us that we must not believe every fpirit, therefore we must believe none at all; or because we must not entertain any other dostrine besides the Gospel, therefore we have no reason to believe that. For the ground whereby we are affured by the Scriptures, that the testimony of Christ was divine, and therefore his dostrine true, is because it was confirmed by such miracles as he did; now if that argument were insufficient which the Scriptures tell us was the great evidence of Christ's being sent from God, we cannot give our selves a sufficient account in point of evidence, on which we believe the doctrine of the Gospel to be true and divine. But the only rational pretence of any scruple in this case must be a suppofed uncertainty in our rules of judging concerning the nature of

of miracles; for there be no certain neither or notes of difference, whereby to know Divine miracles from delusions of senses and the impostures of the Devil, I must confess that there is an apparent insufficiency in the evidence from miracles; but if there be any certain rules of proceeding in this case, we are to blame nothing but our incredulity, if we be not fatisfied by them. For the full clearing of this, I shall first make it appear that there may be certain evidence found out, whereby we may know true miracles from false, and divine from diabolical. And, Secondly, Enquire into those things which are the main notes of difference between them. First, That there may be certain evidence whereby to know the truth of miracles. I speak not of the difference ex parte rei between miracles, and those called monders, as that the one exceed the power of created agents, and the other doth not; for this leaves the enquirer as far to feek for satisfaction as ever; for granting that a Divine power is feen in one, and not in the other, he must needs be still dissatisfied, unless it can be made evident to him that fuch things are from Divine power, and others cannot be. Now the main distinction being placed here in the natures of the things abstractly confidered, and not as they bear any evidence to our understandings, instead of resolving doubts it increafeth more; for, as for instance, in the case of the Magicians Rods turning into Serpents, as well as Moses his; what satisfaction could this yield to any spectator, to tell him, that in the one there was a Divine power, and not in the other, unless it were made appear by some evidence from the thing, that the one was a mere imposture, and the other a real alteration in the thing it felf? I take it then for granted, that no general discourses concerning the formal difference of miracles and wonders confidered in themselves, can afford any rational satisfaction to an inquisitive mind; that which alone is able to give it, must be something which may be discerned by any judicious and considerative person. And that God never gives to any a power of miracles, but he gives some such ground of satisfaction concerning them, will appear upon these two considerations.

1. From God's intention in giving to any this power of doing miracles. We have largely made it manifest that the end of true miracles is to be a confirmation to the world of the Divine commission

commission of the persons who have it, and that the testimony is Divine which is confirmed by it. Now if there be no way to know when miracles are true or false, this power is to no purpose at all; for men are as much to seek for satisfaction, as if there had been no fuch things at all. Therefore if men are bound to believe a Divine Testimony, and to rely on the miracles wrought by the persons bringing it, as an evidence of it, they must have some assurance that these miracles could not come from any but a Divine Power.

2. From the Providence of God in the World; which if we own, we cannot imagine that God should permit the Devil, whose only design is to ruine mankind, to abuse the credulity of the world so far, as to have his lying wonders pass uncontrouled, which they must do, if nothing can be found out as a certain difference between fuch things as are only of Diabolical, and fuch as are of Divine power. If then it may be discovered that there is a malignant Spirit which acts in the world and doth produce strange things, either we must impute all frange things to him, which must be to attribute to him an infinite power, or else that there is a being Infinitely perfest which crosseth this malignant Spirit in his designs; and if fo, we cannot imagine he should suffer him to usurp so much tyranny over the minds of men, as to make those things pass in the more sober and inquisitive part of the world for Divine miracles which were only counterfeits and impostures. If then the Providence of God be so deeply engaged in the discovering the designs of Satan, there must be some means of this discovery, and that means can be supposed to be no other in this case, but some rational and satisfactory evidence, whereby we may know when strange and miraculous things are done by Satan to deceive men, and when by a Divine Power to confirm a Divine Testimony.

But how is it possible, say some, that miracles should be any Sect. 2. ground on which to believe a testimony Divine, when Christ himself hath told us, that there shall arise false Christs, and Mat. 24. 24. false Prophets, and shall shew great signs and wonders; insomuch that if it were possible they should deceive the very elect? and the Apostle tells us that the coming of Antichrist will be with all 2 Thes. 2.9. power and signs, and lying wonders. How then can we fix on miracles as an evidence of Divine Testimony, when we see they

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are common to good and bad men, and may feal indifferently ei-

ther truth or fallhood? To this I reply;

1. Men are guilty of doing no small differvice to the doctrine of Christ, when upon such weak and frivolous pretences they give so great an advantage to infidelity, as to call in question the validity of that which yielded so ample a testimony to the truth of Christian Religion. For if once the rational grounds on which we believe the Doctrine of Christ to be true and divine, be taken away, and the whole evidence of the truth of it be laid on things not only derided by men of Atheistical spirits, but in themselves such as cannot be discerned or judged of by any but themselves, upon what grounds can we proceed to convince an unbeliever that the doctrine which we believe is true! If they tell him, that as light and fire manifest themselves, so doth the doctrine of the Scripture to those who believe it; It will be soon replied, that self-evidence in a matter of faith can imply nothing but either a firm persuasion of the mind concerning the thing propounded; or else that there are fuch clear evidences in the thing it felf, that none who freely use their reason can deny it; the first can be no argument to any other person any further than the authority of the person who declares it to have fuch self-evidence to him, doth extend it felf over the mind of the other; and to ones felf it feems a strange way of arguing, I believe the Scriptures because they are true, and they are true because I believe them; for self-evidence implies fo much, if by it be meant the persuasion of the mind, that the thing is true; but if by self-evidence be further meant fuch clear evidence in the matter propounded, that all who do consider it, must believe it. I then further enquire whether this evidence doth lie in the naked proposal of the things to the understanding; and if so, then every one, who assents to this proposition, that the whole is greater than the part, must likewise assent to this, that the Scripture is the Word of God; or whether doth the evidence lie, not in the naked proposal, but in the efficacy of the Spirit of God on the minds of those to whom it is propounded. Then, 1. The felf-evidence is taken off from the written Word which was the object, and removed to a quite different thing which is the efficient cause. 2. Whether then any persons who want this efficacious operation of the Spirit of God, are or can be bound to believe the Scripture to

be God's Word? If they are bound, the duty must be propounded in such a way as may be sufficient to convince them that it is their duty; but if all the evidence of the truth of the Scripture lie on this testimony of the Spirit, then such as want this, can have none at all. But if, lastly, by this self-evidence be meant such an impress of God's authority on the Scriptures. that any who consider them as they ought, cannot but difcern; I still further enquire, whether this impress lies in the positive assertions in Scripture that they are from God, and that cannot be unless it be made appear to be impossible that any writing should pretend to be from God when it is not; or else in the written Books of Scripture, and then let it be made appear that any one merely by the evidence of the writings themselves without any further arguments can pronounce the Proverbs to be the Word of God, and not the Book of Wildom; and Ecclesiastes to be Divinely inspired, and not Ecclesiasticus: or else the self-evidence must be in the excellency of the matters. which are revealed in Scripture; but this still falls very short. of resolving wholly the question whether the Scripture be the Word of God? for the utmost that this can reach to is, that the things contained in Scripture are of so high and excellent a nature, that we cannot conceive that any other should be the: authour of them but God himself; all which being granted, I am as far to feek as ever what grounds I have to believe that those particular writings which we call the Scripture are the Word of God, or that God did immediately imploy such and such persons to write such and such books; for I may believe the substance of the dostrine to be of God, and yet not believe the books wherein it is contained, to be a divine and infallible testimony; as is evident in the many excellent devotional Books which are in the world.

But yet further, if the only ground on which we are to believe a doctrine Divine be the felf-evidencing light, and power of it, then I suppose there was the same ground of believing a Divine Testimony when the doctrine was declared without writing, by the first Preachers of it. So that by this method of proceeding, the ground of believing Christ to be sent as the Messias sent from God, must be wholly and solely resolved into this, that there was so much self-evidence in this proposition uttered by Christ, I am the light of the World, that all the

light manifests its self, although our Saviour had never done any one miracle, to make it appear that he came from God. And we cannot but charge our Saviour on this account with being at a very unnecessary expence upon the world in doing so many miracles, when the bare naked affirmation that he was the Messias, had been sufficient to have convinced the whole world. But is it conceivable then upon what account our Saviour should lay so much force on the miracles done by himfelf in order to the proving his Testimony to be Divine, that he faith himself, that he had a greater witness than that of John, (who yet doubtless had self-evidencing light going along with his Dostrine too,) for the works which the Father hath given me to finish, the same works that I do, bear witness of me that the Father hath fent me. Can any thing be more plain, or have greater felf-evidence in it, than that our Saviour in thefe words doth lay the evidence of his Divine Testimony upon the miracles which he wrought, which on that account he fo of-Joh. 10.25,38. ten appeals to, on this very Reason, because they bear witness 14. 11. of him; and if they would not believe him on his own Testimony. 15. 24. yet they ought to believe him for his work's sake? Doth all this now amount only to a removing of prejudices from the Person

Joh. 5. 36.

of Christ? which yet according to the tenour of the objection we are considering of, it is impossible the power of miracles should do, if these miracles may be so far done or counterfeited by false Christs, that we can have no certain evidence to distinguish the one from the other.

Sest. 3.

Cell.

Which the objection pretends; and was the great thing wherein Celfus the Epicurean triumphed so much, that Christ Orig. lib. 2. c. Should fore-tell that others should come and do miracles which they must not hearken to, and thence would inferr as from Christ's own confession that miracles have in them & Sev Desov, nothing divine but what may be done by wicked men: This &v & gethiov and. τρι αυτών έργων τ μέν δεόν, τές ή γόντας ήγειδαι; Is it not a wretched thing, faith he, that from the same works one should be accounted a God, and others Deceivers? Whereby those who would invalidate the Argument from miracles, may take notice how finely they fall in with one of the most bitter enemies of Christian Religion, and make use of the same arguments which he did; and therefore Origen's reply to him, will reach them

them too. For, faith he, our Saviour in those words of his doth not bid men beware in general of such as did miracles. ώλλ' ఉस्ते 18 τοίς αναγορεύκουν έαυγες కే τ χειςον 78 θεβ, π' σειρωμθύοις διά πνῶν φανταπῶν σε'ς έαυτες όπιςς έφων τες 'Ικος μαθητές: but bids them beware of that when men gave themselves out to be the true Christ the Son of God, and endeavour to draw Christ's Disciples from him, by some mere appearances instead of miracles. Therefore Christ being evidently made appear to be the Son of God, by the powerfull and uncontrouled Miracles which he wrought, what pretence of Reason could there be to hearken to any who gave themselves out to be Christs, merely from fome strange wonders which they wrought? And from hence, as he further observes, may be justly inferred contrary to what Cellus imagined, that there was certainly an evidence of Divine Power in miracles, when these false Christs gave themfelves out to be Christs merely from the supposal that they had this power of doing miracles. And so it is evident in all the falle Christs which have appeared, they have made this their great pretence that they did many signs and wonders; which God might justly permit them to do, to punish the great infidelity of the Jews who would not believe in Christ notwithstanding those frequent and apparent miracles which he did, which did infinitely transcend those of any fuch pretenders. Such among the Jews were Jonathas, who after the destruction of Ferusalem, as Fosephus tells us, drew many of the people into the Wilderness of Cyrene, onuela no ociouala deigen கோலுக்கில்டு, promising to shew them many prodigies and strange appearances. Not long after in the times of Adrian appeared that famous blazing-star Barchochebas, who not only portended but brought so much mischief upon the Fews; his pretence was that he vomited flames; and so he did, such as consumed himself and his followers: after him many other Impostors arose in Agypt, Cyprus, and Crete, who all went upon the same pretence of doing Miracles. In latter times the famous Impostor was David el-David, whose story is thus briefly reported by David Ganz. David el-David pretended to be the true Tzemach Da-Messias and rebelled against the King of Persia, and did many vid n. 895.

figns and prodigies before the Jews and the King of Persia: at last his head was cut off, and the Jews fined an hundred talents of Gold; in the Epistle of Rambam or R. Moses Maimon. It

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is faid, that the King of Persia desired of him a sign, and he told him that he should cut off his head and he would rife again; (which he cunningly defired to avoid being tormented,) which the King was resolved to try, and accordingly executed him; but I suppose his resurrection and Mahomet's will be both in a day,

in not. Vorstii ad Tzem. Dav.

V. ep. Maimon. although Maimonides tells us, some of the Jews are yet such fools as to expect his Resurrection. Several other Impostors Maimonides mentions in his Epistle de Australi regione. One who pretended to be the Melfias because he cured himself of the Leprose in a night; several others he mentions in Spain, France, and other Parts, and the iffue of them all was only a further aggravation of the miseries and captivities of the poor Fews, who were so credulous in following Impostors, and yet such strange Infidels where there were plain and undoubted miracles to perfuade them to believe in our bleffed Saviour as the true Messias. We freely grant then that many pretended miracles may be done in the world, to deceive men with; but doth it hence follow that either there are no true miracles done in the world, or that there are no certain rules to distinguish the one from the other? But as Origen yet further replies to Celsus, as a Wolf doth very much resemble a Dog, yet they are not of the same kind; nor a turtle Dove and a Pigeon; fo that which is produced by a Divine power is not of the same Nature with that which is produced by Magick; but as he argues, Is it possible that there should be only deceits in the world and magical operations? and can there be no true miracles at all wrought? Is humane nature only capable of Impostures, or can none work miracles but Devils? Where there is a worse, there may be a better; and so from the Impostures and Counterfeits, we may inferr that there are true miracles, wrought by a Divine power; otherwise it were all one as to say, there are Counterfeits, but no Jewels; or there are Sophisins and Paralogisms, but no legitimate demonstrations; if then there be such deceits, there are true miracles too; all the business is Belacuriousions Tes Emagrenhousies Tas Suraners Tetaler Arith and severely to examine the pretenders to them, and that from the life and manners of those that do them, and from the effects and consequents of them, whether they do good or hurt in the world, whether they correct men's manners, or bring men to goodness, holiness, and truth, and on this account we are neither

to reject all miracles, nor imbrace all pretences, but carefully and prudently examine the rational evidences whereby those which are true and divine, may be known from such as are counterfeit and diabolical.

And this now leads us to the main fubject of this Chapter, viz. What rules we have to proceed by, in judging miracles to

be true or false; which may be these following.

True Divine Miracles are wrought in confirmation of some Divine Testimony. Because we have manifested by all the precedent discourse, that the intention of miracles is to seal fome Divine Revelation. Therefore if God should work miracles when no Divine Testimony is to be confirmed, God would fet the broad Seal of Heaven to a blank. If it be said no, besause it will witness to us now the truth of that Testimony which was delivered so many ages since. I answer, 1. The truth of that Testimony was sufficiently sealed at the time of the delivery of it, and is conveyed down in a certain way to us. Is it not sufficient that the Charter of a Corporation had the Prince's broad Seal in the time of the giving of it, but that every fuccession of men in that Corporation must have a new broad Seal, or elfe they ought to question their Patent? What ground can there be for that, when the original Seal and Patent is preserved, and is certainly conveyed down from age to age? So I fay it is as to us, God's Grand Charter of Grace and Mercy to the world through Fesus Christ, was sealed by Divine miracles, at the delivery of it to the world; the original Patent, viz. the Scriptures wherein the Charter is contained, is conveyed in a most certain manner to us; to this Patent the Seal is annexed, and in it are contained those undoubted miracles which were wrought in confirmation of it, fo that a new fealing of this Patent is wholly needless, unless we had some cause of suspicion, that the Original Patent it self were lost, or the first sealing was not true. If the latter, then (bristian Religion is not true, if the Miracles wrought for confirmation of it were false, because the truth of it depends so much on the Verity and Divinity of the Miracles which were then wrought. If the first be suspected, viz. the certain conveyance of the Patent, viz. the Scriptures, some certain grounds of such a suspicion must be discovered in a matter of so great moment, especially when the great and many Societies of the Tt Christian

Sect. 4.

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Christian World do all confent unanimously in the contrary. Nay it is impossible that any rational man can conceive that the Patent which we now rely upon, is supposititions or corrupted in any of those things which are of concernment to the Chrifian World; and that on these accounts.

1. From the watchfulness of Divine Providence for the good of mankind. Can we conceive that there is a Cod who rules and takes care of the world, and who to manifest his signal Love to mankind, should not only grant a Fatent of Mercy to the world, by his Son Christ, and then sealed it by Divine Miracles, and in order to the certain conveyance of it to the world, caused it by persons imployed by himself, to be recorded in a language fittest for its dispersing up and down the world, (all which I here suppose:) Can we I say conceive that this Ged should so far have cast off his care of the world and the good of mankind, which was the original ground of the Grant it felf, as to suffer any wicked men or malignant spirits to corrupt or alter any of those Terms in it, on which men's eternal falvation depends; much less wholly to suppress and destroy it, and to fend forth one that is counterfeit and supposititious instead of it, and which should not be discovered by the Chrifians of that age wherein that corrupt Copy was fet forth, nor by any of the most learned and inquisitive Christians ever fince. They who can give any the least entertainment to so wild, abfurd and irrational an imagination, are so far from reason, that they are in good disposition to Atherin; and next to the suspecting the Scriptures to be corrupted, they may rationally suspect there is no such thing as a God and providence in the world; or that the world is governed by a spirit most malignant and envious of the good of mankind. Which is a suspicion only becoming those Heathens (among whom it was very frequent) who worshipped the Devils instead of God

2. Because of the general dispersion of Copies in the world upon the first publishing of them. We cannot otherwise conceive, but that records containing so meighty and important things, would be transcribed by all those Churches which believed the truth of the things contained in them. We feehow far curiofity will carry men as to the care of transcribing ancient MSS, of old Authours, which contain only some hiflory, of things past that are of no great concernment to us:

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Can we then imagine those who ventured estates and lives upon the truth of the things revealed in Scripture, would not be very carefull to preferve the authentick instrument whereby they are revealed in a certain way to the whole world? And besides this, for a long time the originals themselves of the Apostolical writings were preserved in the Church; which makes Tertullian in his time appeal to them. Age jam qui vo- De prascript. les curiositatem melius exercere in negotio salutis tuæ; percurre adv. hæres. Ecclesias Apostolicas, apud quas ipsæ adhuc cathedræ Apostolorum cap 36. suis locis præsidentur, apud quas ipsæ authenticæ eorum literæ recitantur, sonantes vocem, & reprasentantes faciem uniuscujusque. Now how was it possible that in that time the Scriptures could be corrupted, when in some of the Churches the original writings of the Apostles were preserved in a continual succession of persons from the Apostles themselves, and from these originals fo many Copies were transcribed, as were conveyed almost all the world over, through the large spread of the Christian Churches at that time? and therefore it is impossible to conceive that a Copy should be corrupted in one Church, when it would fo fpeedily be discovered by another; especially considering these three circumstances. 1. The innumerable multitude of Copies which would speedily be taken, both considering the moment of the thing, and the easiness of doing it; God, probably for that very end, not loading the world with Pandeets and Codes of his Laws, but contriving the whole instruments of man's falvation in so narrow a compass, that it might be easily preserved and transcribed by such who were passionate admirers of the Scriptures. 2. The great numbers of learned and inquisitive men who soon sprung up in the Christian Church; whose great care was to explain and vindicate the facred Scriptures; can we then think that all these watchmen should be aseep together when the evil one came to som his Tares, which it is most unreasonable to imagine, when in the writings of all these learned men, which were very many and voluminous, so much of the Scripture was inserted, that had there been corruption in the Copies themselves, yet comparing them with those writings, the corruptions would be foon discovered? 3. The great veneration which all Christians had of the Scripture, that they placed the hopes of their eternal happiness, upon the truth of the things contained in Tt2 the

material alteration to creep into these would suffer any material alteration to creep into these records without their observing and discovering it? Can we now think when all perfons are so exceeding carefull of their Deeds, and the Records whereon their estates depend, that the Christians who valued not this world in comparison of that to come, should suffer the Magna Charta of that to be lost, corrupted, or imbezzelled away? Especially considering what care and industry was used by many Primitive Christians to compare Copies together, as is evident in Pantanus, who brought the Hebrew Copy of Matthew out of the Indies to Alexandria, as Eusebius tells us: in Pamphilius and the Library he erected at Casarea, but especially in Origen's admirable Hexapla, which were mainly intended for this end.

3. It is impossible to conceive a corruption of the Copy of the Scriptures, because of the great differences which were all along the feveral ages of the Church, between those who acknowledged the Scriptures to be Divine. So that if one party of them had foifted in, or taken out any thing, another party was ready to take notice of it, and would be fure to tell the world of it. And this might be one great reason, why God in his wife providence might permit such an increase of heresies in the Infancy of the Church, viz. that thereby Christians might be forced to fand upon their guard, and to have a special eye to the Scriptures, which were always the great eye-fores of Hereticks. And from this great wariness of the Church it was that some of the Epistles were so long abroad before they found general entertainment in all the Churches of Christ, because in those Epistles which were doubted for some time, there were some passages which seemed to favour some of the heresites then abroad; but when upon severe enquiry they are found to be what they pretended, they were received in all the Chri-Atian Churches.

4. Because of the agreement between the Old Testament and the New: the Prophecies of the Old Testament appear with their full accomplishment in the New which we have; so that it is impossible to think the New should be corrupted unless the Old were too, which is most unreasonable to imagine, when the Jews, who have been the great conservators of the Old Testament, have been all along the most inveterate enemies of

the Christians: So that we cannot at all conceive it possible that any material corruptions or alterations should creep into the Scriptures, much less that the true Copy should be lost, and a

new one forged.

Supposing then that we have the same authentick records Sect. 3. preserved and handed down to us by the care of all Christian Churches, which were written in the first ages of the Church of Christ: what necessity can we imagine that God should work new miracles to confirm that Doctrine which is conveyed down in a certain uninterrupted way to us, as being fealed by miracles undoubtedly divine in the first promulgation and penning of it? And this is the first reason why the truth of the Scriptures need not now be fealed by new miracles. 2. Another, may be because God in the Scripture hath appointed other things to continue in his Church to be as feals to his people of the truth of the things contained in Scriptures. Such are outwardly, the Sacraments of the Gospel, Baptism, and the Lord's Supper, which are fet apart to be as feals to confirm the truth of the Covenant on God's part towards us in reference to the great promises contained in it, in reference to pardon of sin, and the ground of our acceptance with God by Fesus Christ: and inwardly God hath promised his Spirit to be as a witness within them, that by its working and strengthning grace in the hearts. of Believers, it may confirm to them the truth of the records of Scripture when they find the counter-part of them written in their hearts by the finger of the Spirit of God. It cannot then be with any reason at all supposed, that when a Divine Testimony is already confirmed by miracles undoubtedly Divine, that new miracles should be wrought in the Church to affure us of the truth of it. So Chryfostom fully expresseth chryfost, in

Christian Church: n) 28 n) rote x gnotium; exivero, n) vov x gnotium; & 21- 6. p. 276. To.3, νεται, νῦν ἀπὸ τρι θειῶν γραφῶν κὶ τρο το τημείων των πίσιν ὧν λέχο- ed. Είνη. who nagezoueda. Miracles were very usefull then, and not at all usefull now; for now we manifest the truth of what we speak from the sacred Scriptures, and the miracles wrought in confirmation of them. Which that excellent Authour there fully manifests in a discourse on this subject, why miracles were necessary in the beginning of the Christian Church, and are not now. To

the same purpose St. Austin speaks where he discourseth of the De ver. Relig: truth cap. 25.

himself concerning miracles, speaking of the first ages of the 1 Cor. 2. hom.

truth of Religion Accepimus majores nostros visibilia miracula secutos esse; per quos id actum est ut necessaria non essent posteris; because the world believed by the miracles which were wrought at the first preaching of the Gospel, therefore miracles are no longer necessary. For we cannot conceive how the world should be at first induced to believe without manifest and uncontrouled miracles. For as Chrysostom speaks, et σημέων χωείς έπεισαν, πολλώ μεζον το δαύμα φαίνεσα. It was the greatest miracle of all, if the world should believe without miracles. Which the Poet Dantes hath well expressed in the twenty-fourth Canto of Paradise. For when the Apostle is there brought in, asking the Poet upon what account he took the Scriptures of the Old and New Testament to be the word of God; his answer is,

Probatio quæ verum hoc mihi recludit, Sunt opera, quæ secuta sunt, ad quæ Natura Non candesecit serrum unquam aut percussit incudem.

i.e. the evidence of that is the Divine power of miracles which was in those who delivered these things to the world. And when the Apostle catechiseth him further, how he knew those miracles were such as they pretend to be, viz. that they were true and divine; his answer is,

Si orbis terræ sese convertit ad Christianismum, Inquiebam ego, sine miraculis: hoc unum Est tale, ut reliqua non sint ejus centesima pars.

i. e. If the world should be converted to the Christian faith without miracles, this would be so great a miracle, that others were not to be compared with it. I conclude this then, with that known saying of St. Austin; Quisquis adhuc prodigia, ut credat, inquiret, magnum est ipse prodigium qui mundo credente non credit. He that seeks for miracles still to induce him to faith, when the world is converted to the Christian faith, he needs not seek for prodigies abroad; he wants only a looking-glass to discover one. For as he goes on, Unde temporihus eruditis of omne quod sieri non potest respuentibus, sine ulus miraculis nimium mirabiliter incredibilia credidit mundis? Whence came it to pass that in so learned and wary an age as that was which the Apostles preached

De Civit. Dei, l. 22. cap. 8.

preached in, the world without miracles should be brought to believe things to strangely incredible as those were which Christ and his Apostles preached? So that by this it appears that the intention of miracles was to confirm a Divine Testimony to the world, and to make that appear credible which otherwise would have feemed incredible; but to what end now, when this Divine Testimony is believed in the world, should miracles be continued among those who believe the Doctrine to be Divine, the miracles wrought for the confirmation of it to have been true, and the Scriptures which contain both, to be the undoubted Word of God? To what purpose then the buge outcry of miracles in the Roman Church is, is hard to conceive, un-* less it be to make it appear how ambitious that Church is of being called by the name of him, whose coming is after the working of Satan, with all power, and signs, and lying wonders, and 2 Thes. 2.9, 10. with all deceivableness of unrighteousness in them that perish, because they received not the love of the truth that they might be faved. For had they received the Love of the Truth of the Gospel, they would have believed it on the account of those miracles and figns and monders which were wrought for the confirmation of it, by Christ and his Apostles; and not have gone about by their juglings and impostures instead of bringing me to believe the Gospel, to make them question the truth of the first miracles when they see so many counterfeits; had we not great assurance the Apostles were men of other designs and interests than Popish Priests are, and that there is not now any fuch necessity of miracles, as there was then when a Divine Testimony revealing the truth of Christian Religion was confirmed by them.

Those miracles cannot be Divine, which are done now for the confirmation of any thing contrary to that Divine Testimony, which is confirmed by uncontrouled Divine Miracles. The case is not the same now, which was before the coming of Christ: for then though the Law of Moses was confirmed by miracles; yet though the doctrine of Christ did null the obligation of that Law, the miracles of Christ were to be looked on as Divine. because God did not intend the Ceremonial Law to be perpetual; and there were many Prophecies which could not have their accomplishment but under a new state: But now under the Gospel, God hath declared this to be the last revelation of

Sect. 6. 2.

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his mind and will to the world by his Son, that now the Prophecies of the Old Testament are accomplished, and the Prophecies of the New respect only the various conditions of the Christian Church, without any the least intimation of any further revelation of God's mind and will to the world: So that now the Scriptures are our adaquate rule of faith, and that according to which we are to judge all pretenders to inspiration or miracles. And according to this rule we are to proceed in any thing which is propounded to us to believe by any persons, upon any pretences whatsoever. Under the Law after the establishment of the Law its self by the miracles of Moses, the rule of judging all pretenders to miracles, was by the worship of the true God. If there arise among you a Prophet, or a dreamer of dreams, and giveth thee a fign, or a wonder, and the fign or the wonder come to pass, whereof he spake to thee, saying, Let us go after other Gods (which thou hast not known) and let us serve them: thou shalt not hearken unto the words of that Prcphet, or that dreamer of dreams: for the Lord your God proveth you to know whether you love the Lord your God with all your heart, and with all your foul. Whereby it is plain, that after the true doctrine is confirmed by Divine miracles, God may give the Devil or false Prophets power to work, if not real miracles, yet such as men cannot judge by the things themselves whether they be real or no; and this God may do for the tryal of men's faith, whether they will forfake the true doctrine confirmed by greater miracles for the fake of fuch doctrines which are contrary thereto, and are confirmed by false Prophets, by figns and monders. Now in this case our rule of tryal must not be so much the wonders considered in themselves whether real or no, as the comparing them with the miracles which were wrought in confirmation of that dostrine, which is contrary to this, which these wonders tend to the proving of. Therefore God's people under the Law were to examine the scope and drift of the miracles; if they were intended to bring them to Idolatry, what-ever they were, they were not to hearken to those who did them. So now under the Cospet, as the morship of the true God was then the standard whereby to judge of miracles by the Law of Moses, so the worship of the true God through Jesus Christ, and by the doctrine revealed by him, is the standard whereby we ought to judge of all pretenders

Deut. 13. 1,

to work miracles. So that let the miracles be what they will, if they contradict that dostrine which christ revealed to the world, we are to look upon them as only tryals of our faith in Christ, to see whether we love him with our whole hearts or no. And therefore I think it needless to examine all the particulars of Lipsius his relations of miracles wrought by his Diva Virgo Hallensis and Asprecollis; for if I see, that their intention and scope is to set up the worship of Damons, or a middle fort of Deities between God and is, which the Scripture is ignorant of, on that very account I am bound to reject them all. Although I think it very possible to find out the difference between true miracles, and them, in the manner and circumstances of their operation; but this, as it is of more curiosity, so of less necessity; for if the doctrine of the Scriptures was confirmed by miracles infinitely above these. I ambound to adhere to that, and not to believe any other dostrine, though an Angel from Heaven should preach it, much less, although some Popish Priests may boast much of miracles to confirm a doctrine opposite to the Gospel: which I know not how far God may in judgment give those images power to work, or others faith to believe, because they would not receive the truth in the love of it: and these are now those riegla Leides, lying wonders which the Scripture fore-warns 2 Thes. 2. 9. us that we should not believe, viz. such as lead men to the belief of lyes, or of doctrines, contrary to that of the Gospel of Fesus Christ.

Where miracles are true and divine, there the effects which Sect. 7. follow them upon the minds of those who believe them, are true and divine, i e. the effect of believing of them, is the drawing of men from fin unto God. This the Primitive Christians infifted much upon, as an undoubted evidence that the miracles of Christ were wrought by a Divine Power, because the effect which followed them, was the work of conversion of souls from fin and Idols to God and Christ, and all true piety and vertue. As the effect of the miracles of Moses was the drawing a people off from Superstition and Idolatry to the worthip of the true God; so the effect which followed the belief of the miracles of Christ in the world was the purging men's souls from all sin and wickedness to make them new creatures, and to live in all exactness and boliness of conversation. And thereby Ori-

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Lib. 2. c. Celf. gen discovers the great difference between the miracles of Christ and Antichrist, that the intent of all Antichrist's monders was to bring men is and the f adrias, to the deceivableness of unrighteousness whereby to destroy them; but the intent of the miracles of Christ was & and TH and ow Their Yugar, not the deceiving but the saving of souls; is & t ugentova Bion is ousen. κοντα τὰ τ' κακίας όσημέρου όπι τὸ ἐλαπον, ἐυλόρως φησιν ἀπὸ ἀπάτης ziveDas; who can with any probability say that reformation of life and daily progress from evil to good should be the effect of mere deceit? And therefore he faith, Christ told his Disciples that they should do greater works than he had done; because by their Preaching and Miracles the eyes of blind souls are opened, and the ears of such as were deaf to all goodness are opened so far as to hearken to the Precepts and Promises of the Gospel: and the feet of those who were lame in their inward man, are so healed as to delight to run in the ways of God's Commandments. Now is it possible that these should be the effects of any evil spirit? But on the contrary we fee the effects of all Impostors, and pretended miracles wrought by Diabolical power was to bring men off from God to fin, and to diffolve that strict obligation to duty which was laid upon men by the Gospel of Christ. Thus it was in that early ape of the Apostles, Simon Magus, who far outwent Apollonius Tyaneus or any other Heathen in his pretended miracles, according to the report which is given of him by the Primitive Christians; but we see the intent of his miracles was to raise an admiration of himself, and to bring men off from all holiness of conversation, by afferting among other damnable herefies, that God did not at all regard what men did, but only what they believed: wherein the Gnosticks were his followers. Now when miracles are wrought to be Patrons of fin, we may eafily know from whom they come.

V. Grot. in 2 Thef. 2. 9. in opusc.

> Sect. 8. 4

Those miracles are wrought by a Divine power which tend to the overthrow of the Kingdom of Satan in the world. This is evident from hence, because all such things as are out of man's power to effect, must either be done by a power Divine or

Mat. 12.25,26 Diabolical: For as our Saviour argues, Every Kingdom divided against its self is brought to desolation, and every City or House divided against its self cannot stand; and if Satan cast out Satan, he is divided against himself, how shall then his Kingdom stand? Now Christ by his miracles did not only disposses Satan

Satan out of men's bodies, but out of his Temples too, as hath been shewn already. And besides the Doctrine of Christ which was confirmed by those miracles, was in every thing directly contrary to the Devil's design, in the World. For, I. The Devil's design was to conceal himself among those who worshipped him; the design of the Gospel was to discover him whom the Gentiles worshipped, to be an evil and malignant spirit, that designed nothing but their raine. Now it appears in the whole history of Gentilism, the grand mystery of State which the Devil used among the Heathens was to make himself to be taken and worshipped for God, and to make them believe that their Dæmons were very good and benign spirits; which made the Platonists and other Philosophers so much incensed against the Primitive Christians, when they declared their Dæmons to be nothing else but infernal and wicked spirits which sought

the destruction of souls.

2. The Devil's great design was to draw men to the practice of the greatest wickedness under a pretence of Religion; as is very observable in all the Heathen mysteries, which the more recondite and hidden they were, the greater wickedness lay at the bottom of them, and so were to purpose mysteries of iniquity; but now the design of the Gospel was to promote the greatest purity both of heart and life; There being in no other Religion in the world either such incomparable Precepts of holiness, or such incouraging Promises to the practice of it (from eternal life hereafter as the reward, and the affifance of God's spirit to belp men here) or such prevailing motives to perfuade men to it, from the love of God in Christ to the World, the undertakings of Christ for us in his death and sufferings, the excellent pattern we have to follow in our Saviour's own example; now these things make it plain that the design of Christ and the Devil are diametrically opposite to each other. 3. The design of the Devil is to set God and mankind at the greatest distance from each other; the design of Christ in the Gospel is to bring them nearer together. The Devil first tempts to sin, and then for sin; he makes men presume to sin, and to despair because they have sinned. Christ first keeps men from sin, by his Precepts and Threatnings, and then supposing in, incourageth them to repent with hopes of pardon procured by himself for all truly penitent and believing sinners. Thus in every thing Uu 2 the the design of Christ and the Devil are contrary, which makes it evident that the miracles wrought in confirmation of the dostrine of Christ could be from no evil spirit, and therefore must be from a truly Divine Fower.

True and Divine Miracles may be known and distinguished

Sect. 9. 5.

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from false and diabolical, from the circumstances, or the manner of their operation. There were some peculiar signatures on the miracles of Christ which are not to be found in any wrought Arnob. c. gentes by a power less than Divine. Which Arnobius well exprest.1. p.1g.25,26, feth in these words to the Heathens. Potestis aliquem nobis designare, monstrare ex omnibus illis Magis qui unquam fuere per secula, consimile aliquid Christo millesima ex parte qui fecerit? qui sine ulla vi carminum, sine herbarum aut graminum fuccis, fine ulla aliqua observatione sollicita sacrorum, libaminum, temporum? --- Atqui constitit Christum sine ullis adminisulis rerum, fine ullius ritus observatione, vel lege, omnia illa qua fecit, nominis sui possibilitate fecisse, & quod proprium, consentaneum, Deo dignum fuerat vero, nihil nocens aut noxium, sed opiferum, sed salutare, sed auxiliaribus plenum bonis potestatis munisica liberalitate donasse? He challengeth the Heathens to produce any one of all their Magicians who did the thousandth part of what our Saviour did: who made use of none of their Magical rites and observations in what-ever he did; and what-ever he did was merely by his own power, and was withall most becoming God; and most beneficial to the world. And thence he proceeds to answer the Heathens about the miracles wrought by their Gods, which fell short of those of Christ in three main particulars, the manner of their working, and the number of them, and the quality of the things done.

> 1. The manner of their working; What they did was with a great deal of pomp and ceremony; what Christ did was with a word speaking, and sometimes without it by the touch of his garment: Non inquiro, non exigo, faith he, quis Dens, aut quo tempore, cui fuerit auxiliatus, aut quem fraclum restituerit sanitati; illud solum audire desidero, an sine ullius adjunctione materiæ, i e. medicaminis alicujus ad tactum morbos justerit ab hominibus evolare, imperaverit, fecerit, & emori valetudinum causam, & debilium corpora ad suas remeare naturas. Omitting all other circumstances, name me, saith he, but which of your Gods

Gods ever cured a disease without any adjoyned matter, some prescriptions or other; or which of them ever commanded diseales out of bodies by their mere touch, and quite removed the cause of the distempers. Assculapius, he says, cured diseases. but in the way that ordinary bysicians do, by prescribing something, or other, to be done by the patients. Nulla autem virtus et medicaminibus amovere que noceant; beneficia ista rerum. non funt curantium potestates. To cure diseases by prescriptions argues no power at all in the prescriber, but vertue in the medicine.

2. In the number of the persons cured: they were very few which were cured in the Heathen Temples: Christ cured whole multitudes, and that not in the revestries of the Temples where fraud and imposture might be easily suspected, but in the presence of the people who brought to him all manner of perfons fick of all forts of diseases, which were cured by him; and these so numerous, that the Evangelist who records many of Christ's miracles which had been omitted by the others, yet tells us at last, the miracles of Christ were so many, that the whole world would not contain them. But now Arnobius tells Joh. 21, 25. the Heathens, Quid prodest ostendere unum aut alterum fortasse curatos, cum tot millibus subvenerit nemo, & plena sint omnia miserorum infeliciumque delubra? What matter is it to shew one or two cured, when thousands lie continually in the Temples perishing for want of cure? yea such as did Asculapium ipsum precibus fatigare, & invitare miserrimis votis, that could not beg a cure of Asculapius with all their earnestness and importunity.

3. In the quality of the diseases cured; the cures among the Heathens were some slight things in comparison of those performed by Chr ft; the most acute, the most Chronical, the most malignant of diseases, cured by a touch, a word, a thought. Gul. Ader, de A learned Physician hath undertaken to make it evident from morbis Evangel. the circumstances of the story, and from the received principles among the most authentick Physicians, that the diseases cured by our Saviour were all incurable by the rules of Phyfick; if so, the greater the power of our Saviour, who cured them with fo much facility as he did. And he not only cured all diseases himself, but gave a power to others, who were not at all versed in matters of art and subtilty, that they should

do miracles likewise sine fucis & adminiculis, without any fraud or affistance: quid dicitis O mentes incredulæ, difficiles, duræ! alicuine mortalium Jupiter ille Capitolinus hujusmodi potestatem dedit? when did ever the great Jupiter Capitolinus give a power of working miracles to any? I do not fay, faith he, of raifing the dead, or curing the blind, or healing the lame, sed ut pultulam, reduviam, populam, aut vocis Imperio aut manus contrectatione comprimeret: but to cure a wart, a pimple, any the most trivial thing, with a word speaking, or the touch of the hand. Upon this Arnobius challengeth the most famous of all the Heathen Magicians, Zoroastres, Armenius, Pamphilus, Apollonius, Damigero, Dardanus, Velus, Julianus, and Bæbulus, or any other renowned Magician to give power to any one to make the dumb to speak, the deaf to hear, the blind to see, or bring life into a dead body. Or if this be too hard, with all their Magical Rites and Incantations, but to do that, quod a rusticis Christianis jussionibus factitatum est nudis, which ordinary Christians do by their mere words: So great a difference was there between the highest that could be done by Magick, and the least that was done by the Name and Power of christ.

Sect. 10 6.

Where Miracles are truly Divine, God makes it evident to all Impartial judgments that the things done exceed all created power. For which purpose we are to observe that though Impostures and Delusions may go far, the cower of Magicians further when God permits them; yet when God works Miracles to confirm a Divine Testimony, he makes it evident that his Power doth infinitely exceed them all. This is most conspicuous, in the case of Moses and our blessed Saviour. First Moses, he began to do some miracles in the presence of Pharaoh and the Ægyptians, turning his Rod into a Serpent; but we do not find Pharaoh at all amazed at it, but fends prefently for the Magicians to do the same, who did it (whether really or only in appearance, is not material to our purpose,) Exed 7.10,12. but Aaron's rod swallowed up theirs. The next time the wa-Exod. 8.19,22, ters are turned into blood by Moses, the Magicians they do so too. After this, Moses brings up Frogs upon the Land, so do the Magicians. So that here now is a plain and open contest in the presence of Pharaoh and his people, between Moses and

the Magicians, and they try for victory over each other; fo

that

8. 6, 7.

that if Moses do no more than they, they would look upon him but as a Magician; but if Moses do that which by the acknowledgment of these Magicians themselves could be only by Divine Power, then it is demonstrably evident that his Power was as far above the power of Magick as God is above the Devil. Accordingly we find it in the very next miracle in' turning the dust into Ciniphes (which we render) lice, the Magicians are non-plust, and give out, saying in plain terms, This is the finger of God. And what greater acknowledgment can there be of Divine Power than the confession of those who feemed to contest with it, and to imitate it as much as possible? After this we find not the Magicians offering to contest with Moses, and in the plague of boyls we particularly read that they could not stand before Moses. Thus we see in the case of Moses how evident it was that there was a power above all power of Magick which did appear in Moses. And fo likewise in the case of our blessed Saviour; for although Simon Magus, Apollonius, or others, might do some small things, or make some great shew and noise by what they did; yet none of them ever came near the doing things of the same kind which our Saviour did, curing the born blind, restoring the dead to life after four days, and so as to live a considerable time after; or in the manner he did them, with a word, a touch, with that frequency and openness before his greatest enemies as well as followers, and in such an uncontrouled manner, that neither Jews or Heathens, ever questioned the truth of them. And after all these, when he was laid in the grave after his crucifixion, exactly according to his own prediction, he rose again the third day, appeared frequently among his Disciples for forty days together. After which, in their presence, he ascended up to Heaven, and soon after, made good his promise to them, by fending his Holy Spirit upon them, by which they spake with tongues, wrought miracles, went up and down Preaching the Gospel of Christ with great boldness, chearfulnels, and constancy, and after undergoing a great deal of hardthip in it, they fealed the truth of all they spake with their blood, laying down their lives to give witness to it. Thus abundantly to the satisfaction of the minds of all good men hath God given the highest rational evidence of the truth of the Doctrine which he hath revealed to the World. And thus I

8. 19.

9. 11.

have finished the second part of my task, which concerned the rational evidence of the truth of Divine Revelation from the persons who were imployed to deliver God's mind to the World: And therein have, I hope, made it evident that both Moses and the Prophets, our Saviour and his Apostles, · did come with sufficient rational evidence to convince the world that they were persons immediately sent from God.

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BOOK III.

CHAP. I.

Of the Being of God.

The Principles of all Religion lie in the Being of God and Immortality of the soul: from them the necessity of a particular divine revelation rationally deduced; the method laid down for proving the divine Authority of the Scriptures. Why Moses doth not prove the Being of God, but suppose it. The notion of a Deity very consonant to reason. Of the nature of Idea's, and particularly of the Idea of God. How we can form an Idea of an infinite Being. How far such an Idea argues existence. The great unreasonableness of Atheism demonstrated. Of the Hypotheses of the Aristotelian and Epicurean Atheists. The Atheists pretences examined and refuted. Of the nature of the arguments whereby we prove there is a God. Of universal consent and the evidence of that to prove a Deity and Immortality of souls. Of necessity of existence implied in the notion of God, and how far that proves the Being of God. The order of the world and usefulness of the parts of it, and especially of man's body an argument of a Deity. Some higher principle proved to be in the world than matter and motion. The Nature of the soul, and possibility of its subsisting after death. Strange appearances in Nature not solvable by the power of imagination.

Aving in the precedent Book largely given a rational account of the grounds of our faith, as to the persons whom God imploys to reveal his mind to the world; if we can now make it appear that those sacred records which

Sect. 1.

we embrace as divinely inspired, contain in them nothing unworthy of so great a name, or unbecoming per/ons sent from God to deliver; there will be nothing wanting to justifie our Religion in point of reason to be true, and of revelation to be divine. For the Scriptures themselves coming to us in the name of God, we are bound to believe them to be fuch as they pretend to be, unless we have ground to question the general foundations of all religion as uncertain, or this particular way of religion as not suitable to those general foundations. The foundations of all religion lie in two things; that there is a God who rules the world, and that the fouls of men are capable of subsisting after death; for he that comes unto God, must believe that he is, and that he is a rewarder of them that feek him; fo that if these things be not supposed as most agreeable to bumane reason, we cannot imagine upon what grounds mankind should embrace any way of religion at all. For if there be not a God whom I am to ferve and obey, and if I have not a foul of an immortal nature, there can be no sufficient obligation to religion, nor motive inducing to it: For all obligation to obedience must Suppose the existence of such a Being which hath power to command me; and by reason of the promiscuous scatterings of good and evil in this life, the motives engaging men to the practice of religion, must suppose the certainty of a future state. If these things be sure, and the foundations of religion in general thereby firmly established, it will presently follow as a matter most agreeable to reason, that the God whom we are to serve should himfelf prescribe the way of his own worship; and if the right of donation of that bappiness which mens souls are capable of be alone in himself, that he alone should declare the terms on which it may be expected; For man being a creature endued with a free principle of acting, which he is conscious to himfelf of, and therefore not being carried to his end by necessity of nature or external violence, without the concurrence of his own reasonand choice, we must suppose this happiness to depend upon the performance of some conditions on man's part, whereby he may demonstrate that it is the matter of his free choice, and that he freely quits all other interests that he might obtain the enjoyment of it. Which conditions to be performed, being expressions of man's obedience towards God as his Creator and Governour, and of his gratitude for the tenders of so great a happine s

Heb. 11. 6.

piness which is the free gift of his Maker, we cannot suppose any one to have power to prescribe these conditions, but he that hath power likewise to deprive the foul of her happiness upon nonperformance, and that must be God himself. But in order to man's understanding his duty, and his obligation to obedience, it is necessary that these conditions must not be locked up in the Cabinet Council of Heaven, but must be so far declared and revealed, that he may be fully acquainted with those terms which his happine s depends upon; else his neglet of them would be excusable, and his misery unavoidable. Had man indeed remained without offending his Maker, he might still have stood in his favour upon the general terms of obedience due from the creature to his Creator, and to all fuch particular precepts which should bear the impress of his Maker's will upon them, beside which, the whole volume of the Creation, without, and his own reason within would have been sufficient directors to him in the performance of his duty. But he abusing his liberty, and being thereby guilty of Apostasie from God (as is evident by a continued propensity to sin, and the strangeness between God and the fouls of men) a particular revelation is now become necessary, that mankind may thereby understand on what terms God will be pleased again, and by what means they may be restored into his favour. And lastly, it not agreeing with the free and communicative nature of divine goodness (which was the first original of the world's Creation) to suffer all mankind to perish in their own folly, we must suppose this way for man's recovery to be somewhere prescribed, and the revelation of it to be somewhere extant in the world. So that from the general principles of the existence of God, and immortality of the soul. we have deduced by clear and evident reason the necessity of some particular divine revelation, as the standard and measure of Religion. And according to these principles we must examine whatever pretends to be of divine revelation; for it must be suitable to that divine nature from whom it is supposed to come, and it must be agreeable to the conditions of the souls of men, and therefore that which carries with it the greatest evidence of divine revelation, is, a faithfull representation of the state of the case between God and the souls of men, and a divine discovery of those ways whereby men's souls may be fitted for eternal happiness. A divine revelation then must be faithfull X X 2

faithfull and true in all its narrations; it must be excellent and becoming God in all its discoveries. And therefore all that can with any reason be desired for proof of the divine authority of the Scriptures, will lie in these three things. First, That the foundations of religion are of undoubted certainty, or that there is a God, and that mens souls are immortal. Secondly, That the Scriptures do most faithfully relate the matters of greatest antiquity therein contained (which do most concern the History of the breach between God and man.) Thirdly, That the Scriptures are the only authentick records of those terms on which

happiness may be expected in another world.

I begin with the first of them, which concerns the existence Sect. 2. of God, and immortality of the foul; both which feem to be supposed as general Prolepses in the writings of Moses, and as things fo confonant to humane nature, that none to whom his writings should come could be supposed to question them. And therefore he spends no time in the operate proving of either of these, knowing to how little purpose his writings would be to fuch who denyed these first principles of all religion. But befide this, there may be these accounts given, why these main foundations of all religion are no more infifted on in the first Books of the Scripture, which contain the originals of the world. First, Because these were in the time of the writing of them, believed with an universal consent of mankind. In those more early days of the world, when the tradition of the first ages of it was more fresh and entire, it is scarce imaginable that men should question the Being of a God, when the bistory of the flood, and the propagation of the world after it by the Sons of Noah, and the burning of Sodom and Gomorrah were so fresh in their memories, as having been done fo few Generations before them. And by what remains of any history of other Nations in those elder times men were so far from Atheism, that Polytheism and Idolatry were the common practice of the world, as is most evident in all relations of the ancient Chaldeans, Agyptians, Phanicians, and other Nations, who all supposed these two principles, as well as those who served the true God. And in all probability, as men are apt to run from one extreme to another, Polytheism was the first occasion of Atheism, and Idolatry of Irreligion. And thence we find the first appearance of Atheists to be in the most blind and superstitious age of Greece, when the obscene Paets

Poets had so debauched the common understandings of the people, as to make them believe fuch things concerning their Gods, which were so incongruous to humane nature, that all who had any sense of goodness left, could not but loath and abbor fuch Deities. And therefore we find all the flouts and jeers of the reputed Atheists among them, fuch as Dionysius, Diagoras, Theodorus, Euhemerus, Messenius and others, were cast upon their venerable Deities, which they so solemnly worshipped, who had been before as Euhemerus plainly told them. poor mortal men, and those not of the best reputation neither: and therefore as the Epicurean in Tully well fays, omnis eorum De Nat. Deor. cultus esset in luctu, the most suitable devotion for them had 1. 1. cap. 38. been lamenting their death. Now when these common Deities were so much derided by intelligent men, and yet the order of the world feemed to tell them there was really a God, though those were none; those who had Philosophical wits, such as Democritus and Epicurus fet themselves to work to see if they could folve the Phanomena of nature without a Detty; and therefore afferted the origin of the universe to be only by a fortuitous concourse of infinite little particles; but herein they befooled themselves and their greedy followers, who were glad to be rid of those anxieties of mind which the thoughts of a Deity and an immortal foul did cause within them. And although Lucretius in a bravado tells us of his Master, that when mens minds were sunk under the burden of Religion,

Humana ante oculos fæde cum vita jaceret In terris oppressa gravi sub religione: Primum Graius homo mortales tollere contra Est oculos ausus, primusque obsistere contra.

De rerum Nat. lib. I.

That Epicurus was the first true Gyant who durst encounter the Gods, and if we believe him, overthrew them in open field;

> Quare religio pedibus subjecta vicissim Obteritur, nos exæquat victoria cælo.

Yet Cotta in Tully reports the issue of this battle quite otherwife; for although the greatest triumph in this victory had been only to become like the beafts that perish; yet if we believe De Nat. Deor. lib. I. cap. 86.

lieve Cotta, Epicurus was so far from gaining any of his beloved ease and pleasure by his sentiments, that never was Schoolboy more afraid of a Rod, nor did any enemy more dread a Conqueror, than Epicurus did the thoughts of a God and death. Nec quenquam vidi qui magis ea qua timenda esse negaret, timeret; mortem dico & Deos. So hard it is for an Epicurean even after he hath prostituted his conscience, to silence it; but (whatever there be in the air) there is an Elastical power in conscience that will bear its felf up notwithstanding the weight that is laid upon it. And yet after all the labours of Epicurus, he knew it was to no purpose to endeavour to root out wholly the belief of a Deity out of the world, because of the unanimous confent of the world in it; and therefore he admits of it as a necessary Prolepsis or Anticipation of humane nature, quod in omnium animis deorum notionem impressisset ipsa natura, that nature its felf had stamped an Idea of God upon the minds of men; cum enim non instituto aliquo, aut more lib. I. cap. 44. aut lege sit opinio constituta, maneatque ad unum omnium sirma consensio, intelligi necesse est Deos est, quoniam insitas eorum. vel potius innatas cognitiones habemus; de quo autem omnium natura consentit, id verum esse necesse est, as Velleius the Epicurean argues. Since the belief of a Deity, neither rises from custom nor was enacted by Law, yet is unanimously assented to by all mankind; it necessarily follows that there must be a Deity, because the Idea of it is so natural to us. If it were thus acknowledged in the Philosophical age of Greece, when men bent their wits to unsettle the Belief of such things as tended to Religion; how much more might it be esteemed a general principle of humane nature in those elder times, when not so much as one differter appeared that we read of among the more antient Nations? But Secondly, it was less needful for Moles to infift much on the proof of a Deity in his writings, when his very imployment, and the bestory he wrote, was the greatest evidence that there was one. Could any of them question, whether there were a God, or no, who had heard his voice at mount Sinai, and had received a Law from him, who had been present at so many miracles which were done by Moses in Azypt and the Wilderness? What more evident demonstration of God could be defired, than those many unparallell'd miracles, which were wrought among them? And

De Nat. Deor. .

And those who would not be convinced by them that there was a God would certainly be convinced by nothing. Thirdly, It was unfuitable to the purpose of Moses to go about to prove any thing he delivered by the mere force of humane reafon, because he writ as a person imployed by God; and therefore by the Arguments on which they were to believe his Testimony in whatever he writ, they could not but believe there was a God that imployed him. And from hence it is that Moles with so much Majesty and Authority begins the History of the Creation, with, In the beginning God created the Heaven and the Earth. There could be no greater evidence that there was an infinitely wife, good, and powerful God, than that the Universe was produced out of nothing by him; and what reafon could there be to distrust his Testimony who relates it, who manifested not only that there was a God, but that he was imployed by him, by the miracles which he wrought? for that all our former discourse concerning the evidences of Divine revelation, are a most palpable demonstration of a Deity; for if there be fuch a power which can alter the course of nature when he pleases, the Being wherein it is, must needs be infinite; which is the same which we mean by God.

But yet for those whose minds are so coy and squeamish as to any thing of Divine revelation, we want not sufficient evidence in point of reason to prove to them the existence of a Deity. In order to which, I shall clear these following pro-

politions.

1. That the true notion of a Deity is most agreeable to the faculties of mens souls, and most consonant to reason and the light of nature.

2. That these who will not believe that there is a God, do believe other things on far less reason, and must by their own principles deny some things which are apparently true.

3. That we have a certain evidence that there is a God, as.

it is possible for us to have, considering his nature.

That the true notion of God is most agreeable to the facul-Prop. ties of mens souls, and most consonant to reason and the light of nature: i.e. that the Idea of God (or that which we conceive in our minds when we think of God) is so far from being any ways repugnant to any principle of reason within us, that it is hard to pitch on any other notion which hath sewer

Sect. 3.

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entanglements in it, to a mind so far Metaphysical as to abstract from sence and prejudice. I grant it very difficult, nay imposable, for those to have any true settled notion of a God, who search for an Idea of him in their fancies, and were never conscious to themselves of any higher faculty in their souls than mere imagination. Such may have imaginem foris, or galeatæ Minervæ, as he in Tully speaks, some Idea of an Idol in their minds, but none of a true God. For we may as soon come by the fight of colours to understand the nature of founds, as by any corporal phanta [ms come to have a true Idea of God. And although fometimes an Idea be taken for that impression of things which is lodged in the Phantasie, yet here we take it in a more general fence, as it contains the representation of any thing in the mind; as it is commonly faid in the Schools that the Divine Intellect doth understand things by their Idea's, which are nothing else but the things themselves as they are objectively represented to the understanding. So that an Idea in its general sence in which we take it; is nothing else but the objective being of a thing as it terminates the understanding, and is the form of the act of Intellection: that which is then immediately represented to the mind in its perception of things, is the Idea or notion of it. Now fuch an Idea as this is, may be either true or false. For better understanding of which we must consider that an Idea in the foul may be considered two ways. 1. As it is a mode of eigitation, or the act of the foul apprehending an object; now this way no Idea can be falle; for as it is an act of the mind, every Idea hath its truth: for whether I imagine a golden mountain, or another, it matters not here; for the one Idea is as true as the other, considering it merely as an act of the mind. For the mind is as really imployed about the one as the other; as the will is about an object whether it be feafible or no. 2. The Idea may be considered in regard of its objective reality, or as it represents some outward object; now the truth or falshed of the Idea lies in the understanding passing judgment concerning the outward object, as existent, which doth correspond to the Idea which is in the mind. And the proneness of the understandings error in this case ariseth from the different nature of those things which are represented to the mind; for some of them are general and abstracted things

things, and do not at all suppose existence, as the nature of truth, of a Being, of cogitation; other Idea's depend upon existence supposed, as the Idea of the Sun, which I apprehend in my mind because I have seen it; but besides these, there are other Idea's in the mind, which the understanding forms within its felf by its own power, as it is a principle of cogitation; such are those which are called entia rationis, and have no other existence at all but only in the understanding, as Chimæra's, Centaures, &c. Now as to these, we are to observe, that although the composition of these things together by the understanding, be that which makes these Idea's to be only fictitious, yet the understanding would not be able to compound fuch things, were they not severally represented to the mind; as unless we had known what a borse and a man had been, our minds could not have conjoyned them together in its apprehension. So that in these which are the most fictitious Idea's, we see, that although the Idea its self be a mere creature of the understanding, yet the mind could not form such an Idea but upon pra-existent matter, and some objective reality must be supposed in order to the intellectual conception of these Anomalous entities. By which we see that that strange kind of omnipotency which some have attributed to the understanding, lies not in a Power of conceiving things wholly impossible, or fansying Idea's of absolute non-entities, but in a kind of African Copulation of such species of things together, which in Nature seem wholly incompossible, (as the Schools speak) or have no congruity at all in the order of the Universe. So that had there never been any fuch things in the World as matter and motion, it is very hard to conceive, how the understanding could have formed within its self the variety of the species of such things, which are the results of those two grand principles of the Universe. But because it is so impossible for minds not very contemplative and Metaphysical to abstract from matter, thence it is we are apt to imagine such a Power in the understanding, whereby it may form Idea's of such things which have no objective reality at all. I grant those we call entia rationis have no external reality as they are such; but yet I say, the existence of matter in the world, and the corporeal Phantasms of outward beings, are the foundation of the Soul's conception of those entities, which have no existence beyond the bumane Intellect. The

Sect. 4.

The great enquiry then is, how far this Plastick Power of the understanding, may extend its felf in its forming an Idea of God. That there is fuch a one in the minds of men, is evident to every one that confults his own faculties, and enquires of them, whether they cannot apprehend a fetled and consistent notion of a Being which is absolutely Perfect. For that is all we understand by the Idea of God; not that there is any fuch connate Idea in the Soul, in the fense which connate Idea's are commonly understood; but that there is afaculty in the Soul, whereby upon the free use of reason, it can form within its felf a fetled notion of fuch a Being, which is as perfect as it is possible for us to conceive a Being to be. If any difficulty be made concerning the forming fuch a notion in ones mind, let the person who scruples it, only enquire of himself, whether he judges all Beings in the world equal; whether a mushroom hath in it all the perfections which man hath? which I suppose none, who have a mind within them can question. If then it be granted that man hath some perfections in him above inferiour creatures, it will be no matter of difficulty to shew wherein man exceeds other inferiour Beings. For is not life a greater perfection than the want of it? is not reason and knowledge, a perfection above sense? and so let us proceed to those things, wherein one man differs from another; for it is evident, that all men are not of equal accomplishments; is it not then forecast and prudence above incogitancy and folly? is not the knowledge of causes of things better than stupidity and ignorance? is not beneficence and liberality more noble than parsimony and narrowness of spirit? is not true goodness far above debauchery and intemperance? and are not all these far better, when they are joyned with fuch a power as hath no limits, or bounds at all? Now then is it not possible for a mans mind; proceeding in its ordinary way of intellection, to form a notion of such a Being, which hath wisdom, goodness and power in it, without any limits and bounds at all, or any of those abatements, which any of these perfections are found within man? For it is unconceivable, that the mind of man can attribute to its felf absolute perfection, when it cannot but see its own defects in those things it excells other creatures in; and supposing it had power, goodness and knowledge far above what it hath; yet it cannot but say, that these perfections would be greater

greater if it were always possessed of them, and it were impossible that it should ever cease to be, or not have been. So that now joyning infinite goodness, wisdom and power, with eternity and necessity of existence, the result is the notion of a Being absolutely perfect. So that now whoever questions the fuitableness of such a notion or Idea to the faculties of mens fouls, must question the truth of his own faculties, and the method they proceed in, in their clearest conceptions and ratiocinations. And the mind of man may as well question the truth of any Idea it hath within its felf, as of this we now difcourse of. Nay, it may be far sooner puzled in any of those Idea's, which are transmitted into the Phantasie by the impressions of Corporeal Beings upon the Organs of sense, than in this more intellectual and abstracted Idea, which depends whol-

ly upon the mind.

All the difficulty now is, whether this Idea of fuch an absolutely perfect Being, be any thing else but the understanding's Plastick power, whereby it can unite all these perfections together in one conception; or doth it necessarily imply, that there must be such a Being really existent, or else I could never have formed fuch a fetled notion of him in my mind? To this I anfwer, I. It is as much as I defire at prefent, that the forming of such an Idea in the mind, is as suitable and agreeable to our faculties as the forming the conception of any other Being in the world. For hereby it is most evident that the notion of a God imports nothing incongruous to reason, or repugnant to the faculties of our fouls; but that the mind will form as fetled and clear a notion of God, as of any thing which in the judgment of Epicurus, his infallible senses did the most assure him of. So that there can be no shadow of a pretence, why any should reject the Being of a God because of the impossibility to conceive any fuch Being as God is. If to this it be objected, that such things are implyed in this Idea, which make it unconceivable, in that all the perfections in this being are supposed to be infinite, and infinity transcends our capacity of apprehension. To this I answer. 1. That those who deny infinity in God, must necessarily attribute it to something else, as to infinite space, infinity of successions of ages and persons, if the World were eternal; and therefore it is most unreasonable to reject any notion for that, which it is impossible, but if Ideny that, I must attribute it to some-Y y 2 thing

Sect. 5.

thing else, to whose Idea it is far less proper than it is to God's. 2. Lest I should rather seek to avoid the argument than to fatisfie it, I fay, that though infinite as infinite cannot be comprehended, yet we may clearly and distinctly apprehend a Being to be of that Nature, that no limits can be assigned to it, as to its Power or Presence; which is as much as to understand it to be infinite. The ratio formalis of infinity may not be understood clearly and distinctly, but yet the Being which is infinite may be. Infinity its felf cannot be on this account, because however positive we apprehend it, yet we always apprehend it in a negative way, because we conceive it by denying all limitations and bounds to it; but the Being which is infinite we apprehend in a positive manner, although not adequately, because we cannot comprehend all which is in it. As we may clearly and distinctly see the Sea, though we cannot discover the bounds of it; fo may we clearly and distinctly apprehend some Perfections of God when we fix our minds on them, although we are not able to graft them altogether in our narrow and confined intellects, because they are Infinite. Thus we see that God's Infinity doth not at all abate the clearness and distinctness of the notion which we have of God; so that though the Perfections of God are without bounds or limits, yet it bears no repugnancy at all to mens natural faculties, to have a fetled Idea of a Being Infinitely perfect in their minds.

Sect. 6.

To the Question I answer, It seems highly probable and far more consonant to reason than the contrary, that this Idea of God upon the mind of man, is no merely fictitious Idea, but that it is really imprinted there by that God whose Idea it is, and therefore doth suppose a reality in the thing correspondent to that objective reality which is in the understanding. For although I am not so well satisfied that the mere objective reality of the Idea of God doth exceed the efficiency of the mind, as that Idea is nakedly considered in its felf, because of the unlimited power of the understanding in conception: Yet I say, considering that Idea in all the circumstances of it, it seems highly probable that it is no mere ens rationis, or figment of the understanding; and that will appear on these considerations. 1. This Idea is of such a Nature as could not be formed from the understanding's consideration of any corporeal phantasms. Because

Because whatever hath any thing of matter in it, involves of necessity many imperfections along with it; for every part of matter is devilible into more parts. Now it is a thing evident to natural light, that it is a greater perfection not to be divisible than to be so. Besides, corporeal phantasms are so far from helping us in forming this Idea, that they alone hinder us from a distinct conception of it, while we attend to them: because these bear no proportion at all to such a being. So that this Idea however must be a pure act of intellection, and therefore supposing there were no other faculty in man but imagination, it would bear the greatest repugnancy to our conceptions, and it would be according to the principles of Epicurus and fome modern Philosophers, a thing wholly impossible to form an Idea of God, unless with Epicurus we imagine him to be corporeal, which is to fay, he is no God. Which was the reason that Tully said, Epicurus did only, nomine ponere, re tollere Deos, because such a notion of God is repugnant to natural light. So that if this Idea doth wholly abstract from corporeal phantasms; it thereby appears that there is a higher faculty in man's foul than mere imagination, and it is hardly conceivable whence a faculty which thus extends it felf to an infinite object, should come, but from an infinite Being: especially if we consider, Secondly, That the understanding in forming this Idea of God, doth not by distinct acts, first collect one perfection, and then another, and at last unite these together, but the simplicity and unity of all these perfections is as necessarily conceived as any of them. Granting then that the understanding by the observing of several perfections in the world, might be able to abstract these severally from each Being wherein they were, yet whence should the Idea of the unity and inseparability of all these perfections come? The mind may, it is true, knit some things together in fictitious Idea's, but then those are so far from unity with each other, that in themselves they speak mutual repugnancy to one another, which makes them proper entia rationis; but these several perfections are so far from speaking repugnancy to each other, that the unity and inseparability of them is as necessary to the forming of this Idea, as any other perfection whatfoever. So that from hence it appears that the confideration of the perfections which are in the Creatures, is only an occasion given to the mind to help it in its Idea of God, and

not that the *Idea* it felf depends upon those perfections as the causes of it; as in the clearest Mathematical truths the manner of demonstration may be necessary to help the understanding to its clearer assent, though the things in themselves be undoubtedly true. For all minds are not equally capable of the same truths; some are of quicker apprehension than others are; now although to slower apprehensions a more particular way of demonstrating things be necessary, yet the truths in themselves are equal, though they have not equal evidence to several persons.

3. It appears that this is no mere fictitious Idea from the uniformity of it in all persons who have freed themselves from the entanglements of corporeal phantalms. Those we call entia rationis, we find by experience in our minds, that they are formed ad placitum; we may imagine them as many ways as we please; but we see it is quite otherwise in this Idea of God: for in those attributes or perfections which by the light of Nature we attribute to God, there is an uniform consent in all those who have divested their minds of corporeal phantasms in their conceptions of God. For while men have agreed that the object of their Idea is a being absolutely perfect, there hath been no differt in the perfections which have been attributed to it; none have questioned but infinite wisdom, goodness, and power, joyned with necessity of existence, have been all implyed in this Idea. So that it is scarce possible to instance in any one Idea, no not of those things which are most obvious to our senses. wherein there hath been so great an uniformity of mens conceptions as in this Idea of God. And the most gross corporeal Idea of the most sensible matter hath been more liable to beats and disputes among Philosophers, than this Idea of a Being infinite and purely furitual. Which strongly proves my present proposition, that this Idea of God is very consonant to natural light: for it is hardly conceivable that there should be so universal a consent of minds in this Idea, were it not a natural result from the free use of our reason and faculties. And that which adds further weight to this argument is, that although Infinity be fo necessarily implyed in this Idea of God, yet men do not attribute all kind of infinite things to God; for there being conceivable infinite number, infinite longitude, as well as infinite power and knowledge, our minds readily attribute the latter which is an argument this Idea is not fictitious, but argues reality in the thing correspondent to our conception of it. So much may suffice to clear the first proposition, viz. That the notion of a God is very suitable to the faculties of men's souls, and to that light of nature which they proceed by in forming

the conceptions of things.

These who deny that there is a God, do affert other things on far less evidence of reason, and must by their own principles deny some things which are apparently true. One would expect that fuch persons who are apt to condemn the whole world of folly in believing the truth of Religion, and would fain be admired as men of a deeper reach, and greater wit and fagacity than others, would, when they have expluded a Deity, at least give us some more rational and consistent account of things, than we can give that there is a God. But on the contrary we find the reasons on which they reject a Deity so lamentably weak, and so easily retorted upon themselves, and the bypotheses they substitute instead of a Deity so precarious, obscure and uncertain, that we need no other argument to evince the reasonableness of Religion, than from the manifest folly as well as impiety of those who oppose it. Which we shall make evident by these two things: I. That while they deny a Deity, they affert other things on far less reason. 2. That by those principles on which they deny a Deity, they must deny some things which are apparently true.

1. That they affert some things on far less reason than we do that there is a God. For if there be not an infinitly powerfull God who produced the world out of nothing, it must necessarily follow according to the different principles of the Aristotelian and Epicurean Atheists, that either the world was as it is from all eternity, or else that it was at first made by the fortuitous concourse of Atoms. Now I appeal to the reason of any person, who hath the free use of it, Whether either of these two hypotheses urged with the same or greater difficulties, &c. be not far more weakly proved than the existence of a Deity

is, or the production of the world by him.

would avoid in the belief of a Deity; and nothing can be a greater evidence of an intangled mind than this is: To deny a thing because

Sect. 7. Prop. 2.

Book III

because of some difficulty in it, and instead of it to affert another thing which is chargeable with the very same difficulty in a higher degree. Thus when they reject a Deity, because they cannot understand what infinity means; both these bypotheles are liable to the same intricacy in apprehending the nature of fomething infinite. For according to the Epicureans, there must be an infinite space, and what greater ease to the mind is there in conceiving an Idea of that than of an Infinite Being? And if the world be eternal, there must have been past an infinite succession of ages, and is not the understanding as easily lost in this, as in an eternal Being which created the world? For if the course of generations in the world had no beginning at all, (which necessarily follows upon the eternity of the world) then an infinite number of successions are already past, and if past, then at an end, and so we find an infinite which hath had an end, which is a consequence becoming one who avoids the belief of a Deity, because Infinity is an unconceivable thing. Besides, if the number of generations hath been infinite; these two consequences will unavoidably follow, which the reason of any one but an Atheist would startle at, that one Infinite may be greater than another, and that the part is equal to the whole. For let him fix where he please, in the course of generations, I demand whether in the Great grandfather's time the succession of generations was finite or infinite; if finite, then it had a beginning; and so the world not eternal; if infinite, then I ask, whether there were not a longer succession of generations in the time of his Great-grand children, and fo there must be a number greater than that which was infinite; for the former succession was infinite, and this hath more generations in it than that had; but if it be faid that they were equal, because both infinite, then the succession of generations to the Grand-father, being but a part of that which extends to his Grand-children and posterity, the part is equal to the whole. And is not now the notion of an Infinite Being enough to flumble an Atheist's reason, when it can so nimbly leap over so apparent contradictions? I insist not on this as an evident demonstration to prove a Deity, which possibly it may not amount to, because it may only demonstrate the impossibility of our understandings comprehending the nature of Infinity. But however it doth most evidently demonstrate the folly and unreasonablene's

ableness of the Atheist who rejects the Being of God on the account of his Infinity, when his understanding is more lost in apprehending an infinite succession of generations which follows from his supposition of the eternity of the world. If then it be impossible, as it is, upon any principles whatsoever, to avoid the conception of somewhat infinite and eternal, either matter or space, or some Being, let any one appeal to his own reason, whether it be not more agreeable to that, to attribute these perfections to fuch a Being, to whose Idea they necessarily belong. than to attribute them to this world, in whose conception they are not at all implied; but on the contrary they do far more puzzle our under standings than when we conceive them to be in God. If somewhat must have a continued duration, and be of an unbounded nature, how much more rational is it to conceive wisdom, power, and goodness to be conjoined with eternity and infinity, than to bestow these attributes upon an empty pace, or upon dull and unactive matter? It cannot be reason then, but some more base and unworthy principle which makes the Atheist question the Being of God, because his perfections are unconceivable, when according to his own principles the most puzzling attributes of God return upon bim with more force and violence, and that in a more inexplicable manner.

As the Atheist must admit those things himself which he rejects the Being of God for; so he admits them upon far weaker grounds than we do attribute them to God. If any thing may be made evident to man's natural reason concerning the existence of a Being so infinite as God is, we doubt not but to make it appear that we have great affurance of the Being of God, but how far must the Atheist go, how heartily must he beg before his bypothesis either of the fortuitous concourse of atoms, or eternity of the world will be granted to him? For if we stay till he proves either of these by evident and demonstrative reasons, the world may have an end before he proves his atoms could give it a beginning, and we may find it eternal, à parte post, before he can prove it was so à parte ante. For the proof of a Deity we appeal to his own faculties, reason and conscience; we make use of arguments before his eyes; we bring the universal sense of mankind along with us: But for his principles, we must wholly alter the present stage of the world, and crumble the whole Universe into little particles; we must grind

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Sect. 8.

grind the Sun to powder, and by a new way of interment turn the earth into dust and ashes, before we can so much as imagine how the world could be framed. And when we have thus far begged leave to imagine things to be what they never were, we must then stand by in some infinite space to behold the friskings and dancings about of these little particles of matter, till by their frequent rencounters and just lings one upon another, they at last link themselves together, and run so long in a round till they make whirl pools enough for Sun, Moon and Stars, and all the bodies of the Universe to emerge out of. But what was it which at first set these little particles of matter in motion? Whence came so great variety in them to produce such wonderfull diversities in bodies as there are in the world? How came these casual motions to hit so luckily into fuch admirable contrivances as are in the Universe? When once I see a thousand blind men run the point of a sword in at a key-hole without one missing; when I find them all frisking together in a spacious field, and exactly meeting all at last in the very middle of it; when I once find, as Tully speaks, the Annals of Ennius fairly written in a beap of sand, and as Kepler's wife told him, a room full of herbs moving up and down fall down into the exact order of sallets, I may then think the Atomical hypothesis probable, and not before. But what evidence of reason or demonstration have we that the great bodies of the world did refult from such a motion of these small particles? It is possible to be so, saith Epicurus; what if we grant it possible? can no things in the world be, which it is possible might have been otherwise? What else thinks Epicurus of the generations of things now? they are such certainly as the world now is, and yet he believes it was once otherwise: Must therefore a bare possibility of the contrary make us deny our reason, silence conscience, contradict the universal sense of mankind by excluding a Deity out of the world? But whence doth it appear possible? Did we ever find any thing of the same nature with the world produced in fuch a manner by fuch a concourse of atoms? Or is it because we find in natural beings, how much these particles of matter serve to solve the Phanomena of nature? But doth it at all follow, because now under Divine providence which wifely orders the world, and things in it, that these particles, with their several affections and motion, may give

give us a tolerable account of many appearances as to bodies, that therefore the Universe had its original merely by a concretion of these, without any divine hand to order and direct their motion? But of this more, when we come to the creation of the world; our design now is only to compare the notion of a Deity, and of the Atheist's hypothesis in point of perspicuity and evidence of reason: of which let any one who hath reason judge. Thus we see how the Atheist in denying a Deity, must assert something else instead of it, which is pressed with the same, if not greater difficulties, and proved by far less reason.

The Atheist by the same principles on which he denies a God, must deny some things which are apparently true. Which will be evident by our running over the most plausible pretences

which he insists upon.

1. Because the Being of God cannot be demonstrated. But how doth the Atheist mean it? Is it because God cannot be demonstrated to sense, that we cannot [digito monstrari & dicier bicest] point at him with our fingers? It is a fign there is little of reason left, where sense is made the only Umpire of all kinds of Beings. Must all intellectual Beings be proscribed out of the order of Nature, because they cannot pass the scruting of sense? And by the same reason all colours shall be dashed out because they cannot be beard; all noises silenced, because they cannot be seen: for why may not one sense be set to judge of all objects of sense with far more reason, than sense it self be set as Fudge over Intellectual Beings? But yet it is wisely done of the Atheist to make sense his judge; for if we once appeal to this, he knows our cause is lost; for as he said of a Physician, when one asked him, whether he had any experience of him: no, faid he, Si periculum fecissem, non viverem; If I had tryed him, I bad been dead e'er now; so here, If God were to be tryed by the judgment of sense, he must cease to be God; for how can an infinite and spiritual Being be discerned by the judgment of sense? and if he be not an infinite and spiritual Being, he is not God. But it may be the Atheist's meaning is not so gross, but he intends fuch a demonstration to reason as that two and two make four, or that the whole is greater than the parts; with such a demonstration he would sit down contented. But will no less than this serve him? what becomes then of the world's being made by a fortuitous concourse of atoms? is this as evident Z Z 2

Sect. 9.

dent as that two and two make four? And will the Philosophical Atheist really believe nothing in nature, but what is as evident to him in material Beings, as that the whole is greater than the parts? By any means let Atheises then write Philosophy. that at last the Clocks in London may frike together, and the Philosophers agree; for I suppose none of them question that. But yet it is possible the Atheist may in a good humour abate fomething of this, and mean by demonstration such a proof as takes away all difficulties. If he means as to the ground of assent, we undertake it; if as to the object apprehended, we reject it as unreasonable, because it is impossible a Being infinite should be comprehended by us; for if it could, it were no longer infinite. But let us try this principle by other things, and how evident is it, that on this account some things must be denied which himself will confess to be true? for instance, that opprobrium Philosophorum, the divisibility of quantity, or extended matter into finite or infinite parts; let him take which fide he please, and see whether by the force of the arguments on either side, if he hold to this principle, he must not be forced to deny that there is any fuch thing as matter in the world: and then we may well have an infinite empty space, when by the force of this one principle, both God and matter are banished quite out of the world. But if the Atheist will but come one step lower, and by his demonstration intend nothing else but such a sufficient proof of it as the nature of the thing is capable of, he will not only speak most consonantly to reason, but may be in some hopes of gaining satisfaction. For it is most evident, that all things are not capable of the like way of proof; and that in some cases the possibility of the contrary must be no bindrance to an undoubted affent. What these proofs are, will appear afterwards. I come to the next ground of the Atheist's opinion, which is,

2. The weakness of some arguments brought to prove a Deity. But let us grant that some arguments will not doe it, doth it therefore sollow that none can doe it? What if some have proved the Sun to be the center of the world; and the motion of the earth, by very weak arguments, will the Atheist therefore question it? what if Epicarus hath proved his atomical hypothesis by some silly sophisms, will the Atheist therefore rather believe the creation of the world than it? What if the Atheist may make himself sport at some stories of apparitions insisted on to

prove a Deity, doth it therefore follow there is no God, because some persons have been over-credulous? What if some having more zeal than knowledge, may attribute such things to God's immediate hand, which may be produced by natural causes, doth it thence follow that God hath no band in governing the world at all? What if fears, and hopes and persuafions, may depend much on principles of education, must conscience then be resolved wholly into these? What if some devout Melancholist may imbrace the issues of his own imagination for the impressions of the Divine Spirit, doth it therefore: follow, that religion is nothing but frength of fancy improved by principles of education? What if some of the numerous proofs of a Deity were cut off, and only those made use of, which are of greatest force, would the truth suffer at all by that? I grant, advantage is often taken against a thing more by one weak argument brought for it, than for it by the frongest proofs: but I say, it is unreasonable it should be so; and were men rational and ingenuous it would not be fo. Many times arguments may be good in their order, but they are mis-placed; some may prove the thing rational, which may not prove it true; some may shew the absurdities of the adversaries, rejecting the thing, which may not be sufficient to prove it; now when men number and not weigh their arguments, but give them in the lump to the main question. without fitting them to their several places, they do more differvice to the main of the battle by the disorder of their forces. than they can advantage it by the number of them.

3. Another great pretence the Atheist hath, is, that religion is only an invention of Politicians, which they awe people with as they please, and therefore tell them of a God, and another world, as Mothers send young children to school to keep them in better order, that they may govern them with the greater ease. To this I answer, I. Religion I grant, hath a great influence upon the well-governing the world, nay so great, that were the Atheists opinion true, and the world perswaded of it, it were impossible the world could be well governed. For the Government of the world in civil societies, depends not so much on force, as the sacred bonds of duty and allegiance, which hold a Nation that owns religion as true, in far surer obligations to endeavour the peace and welfare of a Na-

tion than ever violence can do. For in this case only an opportunity is watched for to shake off that which they account a yoak upon their necks; whereas when mens minds are pofsessed with a sense of duty and obligation to obedience out of conscience, the reins may be held with greater ease; and yet the people be better managed by them, than by fuch as only gall and inrage them. So that I grant true Religion to be the most serviceable principle for the governing of civil societies: but withal, I fay, 2. It were impossible religion should be so much made use of for the governing of people, were there not a real propensity and inclination to religion imprinted on the minds of men. For as, did not men love themselves, and their children, their estates and interests, it were impossible to keep them in obedience to Laws; but doth it follow, because Magistrates perswade people to obedience by suiting Laws to the general interest of men, that therefore the Magistrates first made them love themselves and their own concerns? Soit is in religion, the Magistrate may make use of this propensity to religion in men for civil ends, but his making use of it doth suppose it and not instill it. For were Religion nothing else in the world but a design only of Politicians, it would be imposfible to keep that design from being discovered at one time or other, and when once it came to be known, it would burry the whole world into confusion; and the people would make no scruple of all oaths and obligations, but every one would feek to do others what mischief he could if he had opportunity, and obey no further than fear and force constrained him. Therefore no principle can be so dangerous to a state as Atheism, nor any thing more promote its peace than true Religion; and the more men are perswaded of the truth of Religion, they will be the better subjects, and the more useful in civil societies. As well then may an Athiest say there is no such thing as good nature in the world, because that is apt to be abused, nor any such thing as love, because that may be cheated, as that Religion is nothing but a design, because men may make it stalk to their private ends. Thus we see how the Atheist by the force of those principles on which he denies a God, must be forced to deny other things, which yet by his own confession are apparently \$1168.

Selt. 10.

Prop. 3º

So I come to the third Proposition, which is, That we have as certain evidence that there is a God, as we can have, confidering his nature. When we demand the proof of a thing, our first eye must be to the nature of the thing which we desire may be proved; For things equally true, are not capable of equal evidence, nor have like manners of probation. There is no demonstration in Euclide will serve to prove that there are such places as the Indies: we cannot prove the earth is round by the judgment of sense; nor that the soul is immortal by corporeal phantasms. Every distinct kind of Being hath its peculiar way of probation; and therefore it ought not to be at all wondred at, if the Supream and infinite Being have his peculiar way of demonstrating himself to the minds of men. If then we have as evident proofs of the existence of God, as we can have, considering the infinity of his nature, it is all which in reason we can defire; and of that kind of proofs we have these following. For, 1. If God hath stamped an universal character of himself upon the minds of men. 2. If the things in the world are the manifest effects of infinite wisdom, goodness and power. 2. If there be such things in the world which are unaccountable without a Deity, then we may with safety and affurance conclude that there is a God.

1. That God hath imprinted an universal character of himfelf on the minds of men, and that may be known by two things. 1. If it be such as bears the same importance among all persons. 2. If it be such as cannot be mistaken for the

character of any thing else.

I. I begin with the first, whereby I shall prove this charaeter to be universal, because the whole world hath consented in it. This argument we may rely on with the greater security, because it was the only argument which retained the Deity in the ancient School of Epicurus; which could he have thought of as easie way of evading, as he thought he had found out as to the Origin of the universe, he was no such great friend to the very name of a God, as to have retained it as an Anticipation or Prolepsis of humane nature. And this argument from the universal consent of the world, was that which bore the greatest sway among the Philosophers, who went by nothing but diestates of natural light, which they could not so clearly discover in any things, as in those which all mankind did unanimously con-

fent:

fent in. Two things I shall make out this by. 1. That no sufficient account can be given of so universal a consent, unless it be supposed to be the voice of nature. 2. That the dissent of any particular persons is not sufficient to controul so universal an agreement.

1. That no sufficient account of it can be given, but only by afferting it to be a dictate of nature. In so strange a dissent as there hath been in the world concerning most of those things which relate to mankind in common, as the models of government, the Laws they are ruled by, the particular rites and customs of worship; we have the greatest reason to judge that those common principles which were the foundations on which all these feveral different customs were built, were not the effect of any positive Laws, nor the mere force of principles of education, but something which had a deeper root and foundation in the principles of nature it self. A common and universal effect must flow from some common and universal cause. So the Stoick argues in Tully, If there were no God, non tam stabilis opinio permaneret, nec confirmaretur diuturnitate temporis, nec una cum faculis atatibusque hominum inveterare potuisset. It is strange to think that mankind in so many ages of the world should not grow wife enough to rid it felf of so troublesome an opinion as that was, of the Being of God, had it not been true.

De Nat. Deor. 1. 2.

> We see in all the alterations of the world, other vain opinions have been detected, refuted and shaken off; if this had been fuch, how comes it to remain the fame in all ages, and Nations of the world? Opinionum commenta delet dies, natura judicia confirmat. It is a great discredit to Time to make it like a River in that sence, that it bears up only lighter things when matters of greatest weight are sunk to the bottom and past recovery. This may pass for a handsom allusion, as to the opinions and writings of particular persons, but cannot be understood of such things which are founded on the universal consent of the world; for these common notions of humane nature are fo fuited to the temper of the world, that they pass down the strong current of Time with the same facility that a well built ship, though of good burden, doth furrow the Ocean. So that if we must adhere to the Allegory, it is easily replyed, that it is not the weight of things which makes them (ink, but the unsuitableness of their superficies to that of the Water;

Water; so we see a small piece of wood will fink, when a stately ship is born up; so such things which have not that agreeableness in them to the distates of Nature may soon be lost, but such as lie so even upon the superficies of the soul, will still float above the mater, and never be lost in the swiftest current of Time. Thus we affert this universal consent of mankind, as to the existence of a Deity, to be a thing so consonant to our Natural reason, that as long as there are men in the World it will continue.

Sect. II. But now it is hardly conceivable, according to the Principles of Epicurus, how mankind should universally agree in some common sentiments; much less how it should have such an anticipation as himself grants of the Being of God. For if the foul be nothing else but some more active and vigorous particles of matter (as Diogenes Laertius tells us, that his opinion Lib. 10. in v. was that the foul was nothing else but a System it around Acto- Epic. v. Gassend. The Told Told Told Told Told of the most smooth and round atoms) if To. 2.1.3. Ject. 3. fo, it is very hard apprehending how any fuch things as anticipations or common Notions can be lodged in the foul; For if our fouls be nothing else but some small sphærical corpuscles which move up and down the body, as the Epicurean Philofopby supposeth, then all our knowledge and perception must depend on motion, which motion must be by the impression of external objects: which Lucretius acknowledgeth and con-

Invenies primis à sensibus esse creatam

Notitiam veri.

tends for.

[Lib. 4.

If then our knowledge of truth comes in by our senses, and sensation doth wholly depend upon the impression of outward objects, what becomes of all common Notions and of the Prolepsis of a Deity? unless we suppose the knowledge of a Deity came in by sense, which Epicurus himself denies when he attributes to the Deity not corpus, but quasi corpus, as Tully tells De Nat. Deer us, and therefore he is not a proper object of sense. So that lib, it is impossible there should be any such thing as a natural Notion which may be the ground of universal consent among men, according to the Dodrine of Epicurus. And therefore it tands to all reason in the world, that if our senses be the only competent

Book III.

petent Judges of truth, men should differ about nothing more than such things which cannot be tryed by the judgment of fense; Such as the notion of a God is; (for where should men be more uncertain in their judgments, than in such things which they have no rule at all to go by in the judging of?) but we are so far from finding it so that men are nothing so much agreed about the objects of sense, as they are about the existence of a Deity; and therefore we see this universal consent of mankind concerning a God, cannot be salved by the principles of those who deny it; according to which no account at all can be given of any such things as universal or common notions.

" Seft. 12.

Neither can this universal consent of mankind be enervated with any greater probability by those Atheists who affert the eternity of the world, and refolve this confent wholly into mere tradition, such as the Fables of Poets were conveyed in from one to another. For I demand concerning this tradition, Whether ever it had any beginning or no? If it had no beginning, it could be no tradition; for that must run up to some persons from whom it first came; again, if it had no beginning, it was necessary that it should always be, on the same accounts on which they make the World eternal. And if it be necessary, it must be antecedent to any free ast of man's will which tradition supposeth; and so some false opinion would be found to be as necessary as the World's being eternal, (and by consequence the World's being eternal may be a necessary false opinion) but if any false opinion be once granted necessary, it then follows that our faculties are not true, and that nature is a necessary cause of some notorious falsity, which is the highest impeachment the Atheist could have laid upon his only adored Nature; which must then have done that, (which Aristotle was assamed to think ever nature should be guilty of) which is something in vain; for to what purpose should man have rational faculties, if he be under an unavoidable necessity of being deceived? If then it be granted that this tradition had once a beginning, either it began with humane Nature, or humane Nature did exist long before it; if it began with mankind, then mankind had a beginning, and so the world was not eternal; if mankind did exist before this tradition, I then enquire in what time, and by what means, came this tradition first to be embraced, if it doth not suppose the existence of a Deity? Can any age be

be mentioned in history, wherein this tradition was not univerfally received? and which is most to our purpose, the further we go back in history, the fuller the morld was of Deities, if we believe the Heathen Histories; but however no age can be instanced in, wherein this tradition began first to be believed in the World; we can trace the Poetick Fables to their true original, by the testimonies of those who believed them; we know the particular Authors of them, and what course they took in divulging of them; we find great diversities among themselves in the meaning of them, and many nations that never heard of them. But all things are quite otherwise in this tradition; we have none to fix on as the first Authors of it; if the world were eternal, and the belief of a Deity fabulous, we cannot understand by what artifice a fabulous tradition could come to be fo univerfally received in the world. that no Nation of old could be instanced in by the inquisitive Philosophers, but however rude and barbarous it was, yet it owned a Deity. How could fuch a tradition be spread so far, but either by force or fraud? it could not be by force. because embraced by an unanimous consent where no force at all hath been used, and hath been so rooted in the very Natures of those people who have been most tender of their liberties, that they have resented no indignity so highly, as any affronts they conceived to be offered to their Gods. Nay, and where any persons would seem to quit the belief of a Deity, we find what force and violence they have used to their own reason and Conscience to bring themselves to Atheism. which they could not subdue their minds to any longer than the will could command the understanding, which when it gained but a little liberty to examine it felf, or view the world, or was alarmed with thunder, earth-quakes or violent sickness, did bring back again the sense of a Deity with greater force and power than they had endeavoured to shake it off with. Now had this tradition come by force into the world, there would have been a fecret exultation of mind to be freed from it, as we see Nature rejoyceth to shake off every thing which is violent, and to fettle every thing according to its due order. It is only fraud then which can be with any reason Imagined in this case; and how unreasonable it is to imagine it here, will appear to any one who doth Aaa 2 confider consider how extremely jealous the world is of being impo-(ed upon by the subtilty of such who are thought to be the greatest Politicians. For the very opinion of their subtilty makes them apt to suspect a design in every thing they speak or do, so that nothing doth more generally hinder the entertaining of any motion so much among vulgar people, as that it comes from a person reputed very politick. So that the most politick way of gaining upon the apprehensions of the vulgar, is by taking upon one the greatest appearance of simplicity and integrity; and this now could not be done by fuch Politicians which we now speak of, but by accommodating themselves to such things in the people which were so consonant to their Natures, that they could suspect no design at all in the matters propounded to them. And thus I affert it to have been in the present case, in all those Politick Governours who at first brought the world into both civil and religious Societies, after they were grown rude and barbarous; for as it had been impossible to have brought them into civil Societies, unless there had been supposed an inclination to Society in them, so it had been equally impossible to have brought them to embrace any particular way of Religion, unless there had been a natural propensity to Religion implanted in them, and founded in the general belief of the existence of a Deity. And therefore we never find any of the ancient founders of Common-wealths go about to persuade the people that there was a God, but this they supposed and made their advantage of it, the better to draw the people on to embrace that way of worship, which they delivered to them, as most fuitable to their own design. And this is plainly evident in the vast difference of designs and interests which were carried on in the Heathen world upon this general apprehension of a Deity. How came the world to be so easily abused into Religions of all shapes and fashions, had not there been a natural inclination in mens souls to Religion, and an Indelible Idea of a Deity on the minds of men? Were then this propensity groundless, and this Idea sictitious, it were the greatest flur imaginable, which could be cast upon Nature, that when the instincts of irrational agents argue something real in them; only man the most Noble Being of the visible world, must be fatally carried to the belief of that which never was. Which

Which yet hath so great a force and awe upon man, that nothing creates fo great anxieties in his life as this doth; nothing lays him more open to the designs of any who have an intent to abuse him. But yet further, these Politicians who first abused the world, in telling them there was a God, did they themselves believe there was a God or no? If they did, then they had no such end as abusing the world into such a belief. If they did not, upon what accounts did they believe there was none, when the people were fo ready to believe there was one? Was that as certain a tradition before that there was no God, as afterwards they made it to be that there was? If fo, then all those people whom they persuaded to believe there was a God, did before, all believe there was none; and how can it possibly enter into the reason of any man to think, that people who had been brought up in the belief that there was no God at all, nor any state after this life, should all unanimously quit the principles of education which tended so much to their ease and pleafure here, to believe there was a God and another life, and thereby to fill themselves full of fears and disquietments, merely because their Rulers told them so? Again, if these Rulers themfelves were so wise as not to believe a Deity, can we imagine there ever was fuch an age of the world wherein it fell out fo happily, that only the Rulers were wise, and all the subjects fools? But it may be, it will be faid, that all who were wife themselves did not believe a Deity, but yet consented to the practice of Religion, because it was so usefull for the Government of mankind; but can it be thought that all these wise men which we must suppose of several ranks and degrees, (for Philosophers are not always States-men, nor States-men Philosophers) should so readily concurr in such a thing which tended most to the Interest of the Prince, and to the abuse of the world? Would none of them be ready to affert the truth, though it were but to make a party of their own, and discover to the people, that it was only the ambition and design of their Governours which fought to bring the people to flavery by the belief of fuch things which were contrary to the tradition of their fore-fathers, and would make their lives, if they believed them, continually troublesom and unquiet? Or if we could suppose things should hit thus in one Nation, what is this to the whole World which the Atheist here supposeth eternal? What, did all the Rulers

of the world exactly agree in one moment of time; or at least in one age thus to abuse the World? Did the designs of Governours and the credulity of all people fall out to be so suitable together? But on the contrary, we do not find that Governours can have the judgments of people so at their command, that they can make them to believe what they please; if it were so. we may well say with that Atheistical Pope, Heu quam minimo regitur mundus: What a twine thread will rule the world! But granting these things, (which any but an Atheist will say are impossible) yet whence should it come to pass that the world which is generally led more by the epinions of their fore-fathers, than by reason, should so cancel that former tradition that there was no God, that no remaining foot-steps of it can be traced in any history of those times? Or did the Governors all consent to abolish all records of it? Publick and written I grant they might, but not those out of men's minds and memories; which would have been for the eale of the minds of their posterity conveyed in some secret Cabala from Fathers to their Children. It may be it will be said, so it was, but men durst not profess it for fear of the Laws; but, it is not evident that the Laws of all the ancient Common-wealths were so levere against Atheism, and withall how came some of the wisest and most Philosophical men of Greece and Rome to embrace the existence of a Deity as a thing far more consonant to reason than the contrary opinion, and established their belief on such evidences from nature it felf, that none of their Antagonists were able to answer them? It was not certainly the fear of Laws which made men rational and inquisitive into the natures and causes of things; and yet those who were such amidst the great Idolatries of the Heathen, and being destitute of divine revelation, yet freely and firmly affented to the existence of a Deity. Had it been only fraud and imposture which brought men to believe a God, whence came it to pass that this fraud was not discovered by these Philosophers, who were far better able by their nearnels to those eldest times, and much converse abroad in other Nations (for some travelled into Egypt, Chaldea, Persia, India, merely to gain knowledge) to have found out such an imposture, had it been such, than any of our modern Atheists? Whence come these now in this almost decrepit age of the aworld to be the first smellers out of so great a design? By what means.

means, what tokens and evidence came fuch an imposture to their knowledge? Because, forsooth, the world is still apt to be abused by a pretence of Religion; but he that doth not see how filly and ridiculous a Sophism that is, either by his own reason, or by what hath gone before; hath wit and reason little enough to be an Atheift. Some therefore who would feem a little wifer than the vulgar fort of Atheists (for it seems there is a vulgus among them too, I wish it be more for their meannels than multitude) are so far convinced of the unreasonablenels of judging that the belief of a Deity came in by fraud, that finding it so general and universal, they attribute it to as general and universal a cause, which is the influence of the stars. So true still is that of the Poet, Calum ip (um petimus stultitia; for by what imaginable influence come the stars to plant opinions in men's minds fo deeply and univerfally? But yet further, is this opinion which is thus caused by the stars, true or false? if the opinion be true, we have what we defire; if false, what malignant influence is this of the stars, so powerfully to sway men to the belief of a falsity? How far are the stars then from doing good to mankind, when they are so influential to deceive the world; but then, by what peculiar influence come some men to be freed from this general imposture? If the cause be so universal, the effect must be universal too. But if only the nativity and continuance of some particular religions may be calculated by the stars, (as Cardan and Vaninus, atheistically suppose) whence then comes the general propensity and inclination to Religion in all ages and nations of the World? If it be then caused by the Heavens in general, it must be produced necessarily and universally, and so to be an Atheist, were impossible; if it be caused by the influence of some particular stars, then when that influence ceaseth, the world would univerfally relapse into Atheism. So that there is no possible way of avoiding this universal consent of mankind, as an argument that there is a God, when all the pretences of the Atheist against it are so weak, ridiculous and impertinent.

The only thing then left for him, is, to deny the truth of the Sett. 13. thing, viz. that there is such an universal consent; because some persons have been found in the world who have not agreed with the rest of mankind in this opinion. To this I answer, (which was the fecond particular for clearing this argument) that

were

that the diffent of these persons is not sufficient to manifest the

consent not to be universal, and to arise from a dictate of nature.

2.

For I demand of the greatest Atherst, Whether it be sufficient to fay, that it is not natural for men to have two legs, because fome have been born with one, or that it is not natural for men to desire life (which the Atheist loves so dearly) because there have been so many who have taken away their own lives? If it be faid that these are Monsters and Anomaly's in nature. and therefore not to be reckoned in the regular account of things, the same I may with as great reason say of Atheists, that they are to be dispunged out of the Census of such who act upon free principles of realon; because there may be some peculiar reafons given of their diffent from the rest of mankind in the denial of a Deity. We see by the old Philosophers how far the affectation of Novelty, and ambition of being cried up for no vulgar wits, may carry men to deny fuch things, which are most common and obvious in the world. Is there any thing more plain and evident to reason, than that it implies a contradiction for the same thing to be and not to be at the same time, and yet if we believe Aristotle, who largely disputes against them, ein de Tives of autol Te evde zedal pan to auto ED x un D. There was some who affirmed that a thing might be and not be at the same time. What so evident in nature as motion, yet the Philosopher is well known who disputed against it, and thought himself subtile in doing so too? What are men more affured of, than that they live, and yet (if it be not too dogmatical, even in that to believe the Scepticks) it was a thing none could be affured of? What are our fenses more affured of than that the (now is white, yet all the Philosophers were not of that opinion? Is this then sufficient reason on which to deny an universal consent, because some Philosophers opposed it, when it is most undoubtedly true, which Tully sharply speaks of the ancient Philosophers, Nihil tam absurdum quod non dixerit aliquis Philosophorum; there was no abjurdity so great, but it found a Philosopher to wouch it: But in this case those Philosophers who questioned the existence of a Deity, though they were not for number to be compared with those who afferted it, yet were

not so inexcusable therein as our modern Atheists; because they then knew no other way of Religion, but that which was joyned with horrible superstition, and ridiculous rites of worship; they

lib. 4. cap. 4.

Metaphys.

De Nat. Deor. lib. 3.

were strangers to any thing of divine revelation, or to any real miracles wrought to confirm it, and to fuch a way of ferving God which is most agreeable to the Divine nature, most suitable to our reason, most effectual for advancing true goodness in the world, And although this most excellent Religion, viz. the Christian, be subject to many scandals by reason of the corruptions which have been mixed with it by those who have professed it, vet the Religion it felf is clear and untainted, being with great integrity preserved in the sacred records of it. So that now Atheism hath far less to plead for it self than it had in the midst of the ignorance and superstition of the Heathen Idolatries. But if we should grant the Atheist more than he can prove, That the number of fuch who denied a Deity hath been great in all ages of the world; is it probable they should speak the sence of nature, whose opinion, if it were embraced, would dissolve all ties and obligations what soever; would let the world loose to the highest licenticulness, without check or controll, and would in time overturn all civil Societies? For as Tully hath De Nat. Deor. largely shewn, Take away the being and providence of God out l. 1. 6 De Leof the world, and there follows nothing but perturbation and gibus, lib. 2. confusion in it, not only all sanctity, piety and devotion is destroyed, but all faith, vertue and humane Societies too; which are impossible to be upheld without Religion, as not only be, but Plato, Ariftotle and Plutarch, have fully demonstrated. Shall fuch persons then who hold an opinion so contrary to all other dictates of nature, rather speak the sence of nature, than they who have afferted the Belief of a Deity, which tends so much to advance nature, to regulate the world, and to reform the lives of men? Certainly if it were not a dictate of nature that there was a God, it is impossible to conceive the world should be fo constant in the belief of him, when the thoughts of him breed fo many anxieties in mens minds, and withall, fince God is neither obvious to sense, nor his nature comprehensible by humane reason. Which is a stronger evidence it is a character of himfelf which God hath imprinted on the minds of men, which makes them so unanimously agree that he s, when they can neither fee him, nor yet fully comprehend him. For any whole Nation, which have confented in the denial of a Deity, we have no evidence at all; some suspicions it is true there were at first concerning some very barbarous people in America, but it is since evident, though

De Idol. p. 2.

c. 3.

though they are grosly mistaken as to the nature of God, yet they worship something instead of him, such as the Toupinamboults, Caribes, Patagons, Tapuiæ, and others; of the last of Addend ad l.1. which Vossius from one Christophorus Arcissewski, a Polonian Gentleman, who was among them, hath given a large account of their Religion, and the manner of their worshipping of their gods, both good and bad. And that which among these Indians much confirms our present argument, is, That only those who have been the most barbarous and savage Nations, have been suspected of irreligion, but the more civilized they have been, the more evident their lense of Religion. The Peruvians V. Acostam.l.s. worship one chief God, whom they call Virachocha, and Pachacamak, which is as much as the Creator of Heaven and Earth. Lipf. Monit. & And of the Religion of the Mexicans, Lipfius and others speak. exempl. Politic. So that the nearer any have approached to civility and knowledge, the more ready they have been to own a Deity, and none have had so little sense of it, as they who are almost de-

> generated to Brutes; and whether of these two now comes nearer to reason, let any one who hath it judge.

Sect. 14. 2.

Another great evidence, that God hath imprinted a character or Idea of himself on the minds of men, is, because such things are contained in this Idea of God, which do necessarily imply his existence. The main force of this argument lies in this, That which we do clearly and distinctly perceive to belong to the nature and essence of a thing, may be with truth affirmed of the thing; not that it may be affirmed with truth to belong to the nature of the thing, for that were an empty Taufology, but it may be affirmed with truth of the thing its felf, as if I clearly perceive upon exact enquiry, that to be an animal doth belong to the nature of man, I may with truth affirm that man is a living creature; if I find it demonstrably true that a Triangle hath three angles equal to two right ones, then I may truly affirm it of any Triangle; but now we assume, that upon the most exact search and enquiry, I clearly perceive that necessary existence doth immutably belong to the nature of God; therefore, I may with as much truth affirm, that God exists, as that man is a living creature; or, a Triangle hath three angles equal to two right ones. But because many are so apt to suspect some kind of Sophism in this argument, when it is managed from the Idea in mens minds, because that seems to imply only an obje-Etive

Etive reality in the mind, and that nothing can be thence inferred as to the existence of the thing whose Idea it is, I therefore shall indeavour to manifest more clearly the force of this argument, by proving feverally the suppositions which it stands upon, which are these three: 1. That clear and distinct perception of the mind is the greatest evidence we can have of the truth of any thing. 2. That we have this clear perception that necessary existence doth belong to the nature of God. 3. That if necessary existence doth belong to God's nature, it unavoidably follows, that he doth exist. Nothing can be defired more plain or full to demonstrate the force of this argument, than by pro-

ving every one of these.

I. That the greatest evidence we can have of the truth of a thing, is, a clear and distinct perception of it in our minds. For otherwise the rational faculties of man's soul would be wholly useless, as being not fitted for any end at all, if upon a right use of them, men were still liable to be deceived. I grant the imperfection of our minds in this present state is very great, which makes us so obnoxious to errour and mistake; but then that imperfection lies in the pronenes in man's mind to be led by interest and prejudice in the judgment of things; but in such things as are purely speculative and rational, if the mind cannot be certain it is not deceived in them, it can have no certainty at all of any mathematical demonstrations. Now we find in our own minds a clear and convincing evidence in some things, as soon as they are propounded to our understandings, as that a thing can be and not be at the same time; that a non-entity can have no proper attributes; that while I reason and discourse, I am; these are so clear, that no man doth suspect himself deceived at all in them. Befides, if we had no ground of certainty at all in our judging things, to what purpose is there an Idea of true and false in our minds, if it be impossible to know the one from the other? But I say not, that in all perceptions of the mind we have certain evidence of truth, but only in fuch as are clear and distinct; that is, when upon the greatest consideration of the nature of a thing, there appears no ground or reason at all to doubt concerning it; and this must suppose the mind's abstraction wholly from the senses; for we plainly find that while we attend to them, we may judge our felves very certain and yet be deceived, as those who have an Isterism in their eyes, may judge with much confidence that they Bbb 2

13.

they fee things as clearly and distinctly as any other doth. Befides, there are many things taken for granted by men, which have no evidence of reason at all in them: Now if men will judge of the truth of things by fuch principles, no wonder if they be deceived. But when we speak of clear and distinct perception, we suppose the mind to proceed upon evident principles of reason, or to have such notions of things, which as far as we can perceive by the light of reason, do agree with the natures of the things we apprehend; if in such things then there be no ground of certainty, it is as much as to fay, our faculties are to no purpose; which highly reflects either upon God or nature. It. is a noble question as any is in Philosophy, What is the certain nellieur of the truth of things, or what ground of certainty the mind hath to proceed upon in its judgment of the truth of such objects as are represented to it? Nothing can render the Philo-Jophy of Epicurus more justly suspected to any rational and inquifitive mind, than his making the (en/es the only certain conveyers of the truth of things to the mind. The senses I grant do not in themselves deceive any, but if I make the impressions of fense to be the only rule for the mind to judge by of the truth of things, I make way for the greatest impostures, and the most erring judgments. For if my mind affirms every thing to be in its proper nature according to that Idea which the imagination hath received from the impressions upon the organs of sense, it will be impossible for me ever to understand the right natures of things. Because the natures of things may remain the same, when all those things in them which affect the organs of sense may be altered, and because the various motion and configuration of the particles of matter may make such an impression upon the fenses, which may cause an Idea in us of that in the things themfelves, which yet may be only in the manner of sensation; as fome Philosophers suppose it to be in heat and cold. Now if the mind judgeth of the nature of things according to those Idea's which come from the impressions made upon the organs of sense; how is it possible it should ever come to a right judgment of the natures of things? So that in reference even to the groffest material beings, it must be the perception only of the mind, which can truly inform us of their proper nature and effence. Befides, there are many Idea's of things in the mind of man which are capable to have properties demonstrated of them, which never owed their original to our senses; and were never imported to the mind at the Keys of the senses. Such are most Mathematical figures which have their peculiar properties and demonstrations; such are all the mutual respects of things to each other, which may be as certain and evident to the mind as its self is; now it is plain by this, that all certainty of knowledge is not conveyed by the senses; but our truest way of certain understanding the nature of any thing, is by the clear and distinct perception of the mind, which is sounded on the Truth of our faculties; and that however we may be deceived when we do not make a right use of our reason, because of the impersection of our present state; yet if we say our mind may be deceived when things are evident and clear to them upon plain principles of reason, it is highly to reslect upon that God who gave men rational faculties, and made them

capable of discerning Truth from falshood.

2. That we have clear and distinct perception that necessity of existence doth belong to the nature of God. For which we are to consider the vast difference which there is in our notion of the nature of God, and of the nature of any other being. In all other beings, I grant we may abstract essence and existence from each other; now if I can make it appear, that there is evident reason, ex parte rei, why I cannot do it in the notion of God, then it will be more plain that necessity of existence doth immutably belong to his nature. It is manifest to our reason, that in all other beings, which we apprehend the natures of, nothing else can be implyed in the natures of them beyond bare possibility of existence; no, although the things which we do apprehend, do really exist, because in forming an Idea of a thing, we abstract from every thing which is not implied in the very nature of the thing: now existence being only contingent and possible, as to any other being, it cannot be any ingredient of its Idea, because it doth not belong to its essence; for we may fully apprehend the nature of the thing, without attributing existence to it. But now in our conception of a Being, absolutely persect, bare possibility or contingency of existence speaks a direct repugnancy to the Idea of him; for how can we conceive, that Being absolutely perfect, which may want that which gives life to all other perfections, which is existence? The only scruple which mens minds

minds are subject to in apprehending the force of this argument lies in this, Whether this necessary existence doth really belong to the nature of that being whose Idea it is, or else it be only a Mode of our conception in apprehending God? For clearing of this, we must consider by what certain rules we can know when the composition of things together in the understanding doth depend upon the mere operation of the mind and when they do belong to the things themselves and their immutable nature. For which we have no rule fo certain and evident as this is, that in those things which depend merely on the act of the mind joyning together, the understanding cannot only abstract one thing from another, but may really divide them in its conceptions from each other: but in such things which cannot be divided from each other, but the efsence of the thing is quite altered, it is a certain evidence that those things were not conjoyned by the mere act of the mind, but do immutably belong to the natures of the things themselves. As for instance, when I conceive a Triangle inscribed in a square, a man walking, a horse with wings, it is evident I may understand the natures of all these things without these affections of them, because I can fully apprehend the nature of a Triangle, without imagining a square, a man without walking, a horse without wings; thence it necessarily follows, that the joyning of these things together, was merely an act of the mind; but now I cannot conceive a Triangle not to have three angles equal to two right ones, nor a man that hath not rationality belonging to him; for if I divide these attributes from them, I destroy their natures; and therefore the joyning of these together is not any mere all of the mind; but these are fuch things as are implyed in the very notion of them, and therefore immutably belongs to them. So now, when I conceive the notion of a body, I can imagine all perfections belonging to it, without conceiving it necessarily to exist; for it may be a body still, though it hath not its being from it self; but when I conceive a Being absolutely perfect, it is impossible to imagine it should have its being from any other; and if it be from its self, it must of necessity exist. For though the mind still be apt to doubt, whether existence in this Idea be only a mode of cogitation; yet that doubt may be easily removed, if the mind doth but attend to this, that at least possibility of existence

existence doth belong to all those Beings which we have a clear Idea of in our minds; and the reason why we attribute bare possibility to them, is because we apprehend some reason in our minds which keeps us from attributing necessity of existence to them, as that it is not implied in its nature, or that it doth depend on some other being, or that it wants infinite power, &c. Now all these reasons which make us attribute bare possibility of existence to any being, are taken away when we conceive a being absolutely perfect; for then existence is implyed among the number of perfections; and this being is independent, upon all others, and infinitely powerful; so that nothing can hinder its existence; and therefore we must conclude that necessity of existence doth immutably belong to the nature and notion of God, and is not any Mode only of our conception; because if we take away necessity of existence from God, we lose the notion of a Being absolutely perfect.

The third thing, that if necessary existence belongs to the

nature of God, he doth exist, not only follows as a necessary conclusion from the other two, as the premises, but is in it self evident to any ones reason; for it implies no less than a contradiction for a being to exist necessarily, and yet it be question nable. Whether he doth exist or no? Thus much I suppose may fuffice here to explain and enforce this argument; if any Vid, Des Cartes are yet unfatisfied, I referr them to those judicious Authors, Metaphys. Mewho have made it their peculiar business to manage it, and vin- dit. & Resp. dicate it from all objections: which falls in only here as an ad Object. evidence that God hath imprinted a character of himself on the tidote against minds of men, seeing we have so clear and distinct an Idea of Atheism. lib. I. fuch a Being, from whom, if we take away necessity of exi-ch. 8. append. Gence, we destroy that notion which our minds have of an ab- ch. 5, 6, 7. solutely perfect Being. This is the first way whereby we can conceive an Infinite Being may make himself known to mankind, by imprinting an Indelible character of himself upon the foul, which can be attributed to none besides himself without doing manifest violence to our own faculties, and suspecting our selves deceived in things which are most clear and evident to us.

I come to the second evidence which God hath given us of his own existence, which is the mark, and impression which be bath left of an Infinite Wisdom and Counsel in the appearances which are in nature. There needs no great Criticism to find

Sect. Isa

out the true Author of all the works of nature; the works themselves shew the Author as plainly, as if his effigies were drawn upon them. If the great curiofity and contrivance of any artificial engine speak the excellency of the Mechanical wit of the framer of it; what ridiculous folly will it be to impute that rare mechanism of the works of nature to the blind and fortuitous motion of some particles of matter? Suppose a multitude of letters casually thrown together, should fall so bansomely in order, that we might read in them the names of Troja, Juno, Aneas, Dido, Turnus, Ascanius or the like; is it possible for any to imagine that ever they should reach the grandeur, stile, matter and accuracy of the whole books of the Aneids? So granting, that now matter being set in motion by a divine power, may by its continual agitation, at last produce some of the appearances of nature; yet what is this to the whole Universe, or the admirable contrivance of any one part in it? If these things had been the result of mere matter and motion, when once the particles of matter had been fo united and setled together, as to produce any one species of animals in the world (which it is almost unconceivable they should) yet we cannot think that if there had been but symmetry of parts enough for it merely to subsist its felf, and propagate more, there could have been any further Attempt made by those Atoms, which had been once setled in a determinate figure. How came it then to pass that there is not any one species of animals in the world, but what hath such an order, symmetry and contrivance of parts, which speaks more than mere necessity of subsistence, and therefore speaks them to be the effects of a supream Governour of the world, and not the products of mere matter? Is it possible that any, who is not before-hand resolved to exclude a Deity, should imagine that any particles of matter should fall into the exact form, order, motion, and serviceableness to the world which the Heavenly bodies are in, without devine counsel and De Nat. Deor. wisdom disposing of them? Tully tells us of a speech of Aristotle to this purpose; If we could suppose persons to have lived in some caverns of the earth, and to have enjoyed every thing there of pleasure, and riches, or whatever it is which we think makes mens lives happy, and had never been abroad upon the surface of the earth, but had only had some obscure report of

1. 2.6. 95.

an infinite Power and Being; and that afterwards these persons Chould by an opening of the caverns wherein they were, come abroad into these parts of the world, and sould suddenly behold the Earth, Sea, and the Heavens, and observe the vastness of the clouds, and violence of winds, and behold the bigness, beauty, and influence of the Sun, and how the day depended upon his presence, and upon his withdrawing should view the face of the Heavens again (as it were the second course of nature) the order and ornament of the Stars, the varieties of the light of the Moon, then' rising and setting, and their fixed and immoveable courses, they could not hold from believing there was a Deity, and that thefe were the effects of his power. So vally different are the free and natural emanations of our souls, from that which we force and strain out of our selves by distorting and wringing those free principles of reason which God hath given us. When a few forry experiments and some arbitrarious hypotheses, must make us form other conceptions of things, than the majesty, order and beauty of them do naturally suggest to us: We see when once we can but abstract our minds from those prejudices which continual conversation with the world brings upon us, by that speech of Aristotle, how readily our minds will frame an excellent commentary upon those words of the royal Psalmist, The Heavens declare the Glory of God, and the Firmament shews his bandy-work. To which purpose likewise those words of the excellent Oretor himself in another place are very observable; Quid est enim verius quam neminem esse oportere tam stul- De Legibus.l.2. te arrogantem, ut in se mentem & rationem putet inesse, in cælo mundoque non putet? aut ea quæ vix summa ingenii ratione comprehendat, nulla ratione moveri putat? quem vero astrorum ordines, quem dierum noctiumque vicifitudines, quem mensium temperatio, quemque ea quæ gignuntur nobes ad fruendum, non gratum esse cogant, bunc hominem omnine numerare qui dicet? What monstrous arrogancy would it be in any man to think there is a mind and reason in himself, and that there is none in the world? Or to think those things are moved without reason and understanding, which all that he bath is scarce able to comprehend? Neither can be deserve the name of a man, from whom the observation of the courses of the stars, the succession and order of seasons, and the innumerable benefits which be enjoys in the world, does not extort gratitude towards Ccc

that Being which ordered all these things. What a low opinion then had those more refined and generous spirits who went only upon principles of pure and undistorted reason, of those mean and ignoble fouls, which were inclined to Atheism; especially then, when Religion was so abused, that it was true of the wifest of them, what one said of Era/mus, Magis habuit quid fugeret quam quid sequeretur, they knew what to avoid, but not what they should embrace: And yet when they saw so much into the folly and superstition of Heathen worship, they saw the greatest reason still to adhere to the belief of a Deity, as may be clearly feen, especially in the second of those excellent Dialogues of Tully, De Natura Deorum. Where this particular argument to prove a Deity from the admirable contrivance of the works of nature, is managed with a great deal of eloquence and reason, and by particular enumeration of most considerable parts of the Universe. So unbecoming a late Philosopher was that reason of his, why he waved the argument from the consideration of the world, to infer a Deiry, because the ends of God are unsearchable, as flowing from his Infinite wisdom. For, what though God may conceal some things from men, which he intends, and are of no concernment for man to know, must therefore of necessity those ends of his be unsearchable in his works of Creation, which refer so immediately to the advantage of life, and tend so much to the veneration of the Deity?

Sect. 16.

Nay, the peculiar use and serviceableness of many parts of the Universe, especially of Animals, and chiefly of man, is so evident, that this hath been the main argument which hath induced some, otherwise atheistical enough, to acknowledge and adore a Deity. And although the Epicureans be lamentably puzled to give any tolerable account of many other appearances in nature, yet they no where discover so much weakness and ignorance, as when they come to discourse De usu partium, about the contrivance of the parts of man's body. Whose opinion is thus briefly delivered by Lucretius;

Lucret. l. 4.

Nil ideo quoniam natum'st in corpore ut uti Possemus; sed quod natum'st id procreat usum,

i.e. that no parts of man's body were designed for that use which .
they are imployed for, but the parts by chance fell into that form
they

they are in, and men by degrees brought them to their present use and serviceableness. An opinion at first view so strangely unreasonable, that we cannot think Epicurus should have ever embraced it, had it not unavoidably followed upon his bypcthesis of all things in the Universe resulting only from a fortuitous concourse of atoms: According to which he supposed in man a different configuration of parts would happen from the various agitation and concretion of those little particles which at first run together in the fashion of a man; and because that man had in him a more flored and vivacious spirit, made up of the most subtle and movable atoms, thence motion came into the feveral parts suitable to the different conformation of them. And because those atoms of which the soul is composed, are capable of sensation, thence it comes to pass, that it sees in the eye, bears in the ear, and smells in the nostrils. This is the most which is made of the opinion of Epicurus by the late fedulous Vindicator of him, which yet himself calls intoleranda opinio; and it will appear to be so, not only as contradicting, what God himself hath delivered concerning man, but what reason it self will easily suggest from the consideration of the several parts of man's body. It must be confessed there were some Philosophers elder than Epicurus, who were much inclined to this opinion, as Democritus, Empeducles, Anaxagoras, and others; yet we find those who more narrowly searched into the natures of living creatures, were thereby brought to acknowledge a divine providence, which with a great deal of wildom did order the several parts of animals. and adapted them to their peculiar uses. And although Aristotle in his books de partibus animalium, hath said enough to refute the fond opinion of those Philosophers; yet none hath handled this argument with more exactness and accuracy, and with a more peculiar reflection on Epicurus, than Galen hath done in his excellent piece De usu partium. Which Gassendus Gassend. To. 2. thinks Galen writ with a kind of Enthusiasm upon him (adeo lib. 2. sect. 3. totum opus videtur conscriptum enduoiasinas) and so that all those seventeen books of his on that subject, are a kind of 119th Psalm in Philosophy, or a perpetual Hymn upon the praise of the great Creator, a just Commentary on those words of the Psalmist, Psal. 139. 14. I am fearfully and wonderfully made; marvellous are thy works, and that my Soul knoweth right well.

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In the entrance of those Books, Galen first shews the great variety of parts which is in feveral animals suitable to their several natures; the horse because of his swiftness and pride, hath the strongest boofs and most curled main; the Lion because of his fierceness and courage hath his strength lying in his teeth and paws; the Bull in his berns; the Boar in his tusks; the Hart and Hare being timorous creatures, their parts are made fittest for flight: but man because he hath a principle of reafon in him, hath no defensive or offensive weapons in his body. but he hath bands to make use of both; which being joyned with, and imployed by his reason, far exceed all those advantages which any other creatures have, being imployed not only to defend himself, but to build houses, make cloaths, arms, nets, what-ever is usefull for himself, or burtfull to those creatures which he hath command over; but because man was made for fociety and civil converse, therefore his bands were not only imployed to defend himself or hurt other creatures, but for the mutual benefit and advantage of mankind; for by these were Laws written, Temples built, all instruments of Arts framed; by them we enjoy the benefit of others wits, we can discourse with Plato, Aristotle, Hippocrates, and other ancients, though at such a distance from us. Now that the configuration of parts is not the cause of the use of them afterwards; as the Lion's paw of his courage, the Bull's borns of his fierceness, or the stenderness of the Hart of its fearfulness; appears by this, because the young ones of the several kinds of animals, before their parts are grown up, strive to make the same use of them which the others doe. As Galen saith, he had often feen a Bull-calf pushing with his head before any borns were grown out, and a Colt kicking when his boofs were yet tender, and a young Boar defending himself with his jaws before he had any tusks, which is an evident argument that the parts were deligned for the u/e, and not the u/e to follow the parts. So, faith he, take three Eggs, one of an Eagle, another of a Duck, and a third of a Serpent, and after they are hatched through a moderate heat, we shall find when they are but newly batched, the two first will be striving to fly before they have wings, and the third endeavouring to creep away on its belly; and if you breed them up to greater perfection, and bring them into the open Air, you will presently see the young Eagle mounting into

the Air, the Duck quoddling into apool, and the Serpent creep under ground. Afterwards he comes particularly to handle the feveral parts of man's body, and first begins with the Hand, and shews in each part that it were impossible to have framed them with greater conveniency for their several uses than they have. The ule of the hand is to take hold of any thing which man can use; now there being things of such different sizes which men may use, it had been impossible for the hand, if it had been one entire thing, and undivided, that it could have held things greater or leffer than its felf, but it must have been equal to it. But now as the fingers are placed and divided, they are equally fit for laying hold of objects of any fize or quantity; For the least things as a Barley Corn, are taken up with the fore-finger and the thumb, things somewhat bigger are taken up by the same, but not by the extremities of them as before; things fomewhat bigger than thefe, with the thumb, fore-finger and middle-finger, and so on by degrees, till at last the whole hand is used; so that the division of the hand into fingers is necessary. Neither were this enough, but the very position of the fingers as they are, is neceffary too; for they had been useles if they had been all divided in a right line; for the firmest hold is either circular, or at least in two opposite points; but now this is provided for, by the position of the thumb, which may equally joyn with any of the fingers in taking hold of any thing. After this, he largely shews the particular necessity of the softness, roundness of the flesh, and mails on the tops of the fingers; and the special usefulness of these; and then comes to the bones of the fingers, how necessary they are for firm-bold, and if there had been but one bone in each finger, they would have served only for those things which we take up when they are extended; but now feeing they have three several joynts, they are fitted for all kinds of things; for when we bow our fingers, we use them as though they had no bones at all, and when we fretch them out, as though they were all but one entire bone; and the several inflections of the joynts serve for all kind of figures: and then he shews the necessity of the flesh within the fingers, and on either side of them, and upon them; and so with wonderful accuracy handles the magnitude, number, figure of the bones, and nature of the joynts of the fingers, and then the tendons.

tendons and muscles belonging to the several fingers, which after he hath discoursed on through his first Book, he concludes it with the manifest inconveniency which would follow in the hand, were not every thing in it in that exact magnitude, pofition, and figure in which it is. With the same exacines he goes through all the parts of the body, handling in the fecond Book all that belongs to the arm, in the third the legs, in the fourth and fifth the Organs of nutrition, in the fixth and lewenth the lungs, in the eighth and ninth the Head, in the tenth the peculiar and admirable fabrick of the eyes, in the eleventh the other parts of the face, in the twelfth the parts of the back, and so in the thirteenth, in the fourteenth and fifteenth the genitals, in the sixteenth the arteries, veins, and nerves, and in the last the peculiar disposition and figure of all these parts, and the usefulness of the whole design: Which is as great as can be in any work what soever, which is for us to take notice of the admirable wildom of God in contriving the several parts of the body of man: So that, that whole book contains in it a most full and pregnant demonstration of a Deity, which every man carries about with him in the fru-Eturs of his body, on which account men need not go out of themselves to find proof of a Deity, whether they consider their minds or their bodies, of which it may be more truly faid than Heraclitus of old did of his Stove, Etiam bic Dii funt. So that of all persons, I should most wonder at those whose imployment particularly leads them to the understanding the parts and nature of man's body, if the proverb be not a great injury to them, fince they have fuller infight into this demonstration of a Deity in the Fabrick of mans body, than many others who converse only with some jejune and saples writings. And certainly, whatever is imagined to the contrary by men of weak understandings, the best way to cure the world of Atheism, is true Philosophy, or a search into the natures of things; which the more deep and profound it is, the more impossible will it be found to explicate all the phanomena of nature by mere matter and motion. It was wifely observed of a great person and Philosopher, that a narrow and slight inspection into nature, inclined men of weak heads to Atheism; but a more thorow-insight into the causes of things, made them more evidently see the necessary dependance of things on the

Aristot.de part. Anim. l. 1. great and wife Creator of them. A little knowledge of Philosophy is apt to make mens beads dizzy, and then in danger of falling into the gulf of Atheism; but a more careful and diligent view of it, brings them into fobriery and their right wits again. Such a flight in spection had the followers of Epicurus into the nature of things; for when they found how in the present state of the world the various motion and configuration of the particles of matter would handsomely salve many appearances of nature, they, drunk with the success, reel presently into an Infinite space, and there imagine they behold infinite worlds made of the concretion of Atoms, and ever fince their eyes have been so dusted with these little Atoms, that they could fee nothing else in the world but them. Which how gross and unreasonable it is, will appear from our present subject; for who but Lucreties or Epicures could ever think that our nostrils were at first fashioned as they are merely by the violent impulse of the air within, which would force it self a pasfage out? But how came the air into the body before it was forced out? did it first break open the lips, make all that round cavity in the mouth, for a passage through the aspera arteria? but if when it was in, it would come out again, was not the mouth wide enough to let it go? or did the first man shut his mouth on purpose to find another vent for the air? if so, how chance the force of the air did not carry away the epiglottis? or if it got fafely up to the nofe, how came it not to force a passage out about the eyes rather than to go down so low first? But if we believe these rare contrivers of man's body, all the inward vessels of the body were made by the course of water, as channels are; but how is it possible, to imagine that the Oesophagus and the stomach should be so curiously contrived by the mere force of water? and that all the Intestines should be made only as channels to let it out again when it was once in? but how comes then such a kind of reciprocation and Peristaltick motion in those vellels? how come the several coats of them; to be so firm? if it had been only a forced passage, it would have been direct and through the substance of the parts, as we find it to be in all forced passages in the body of the earth. Besides, if the water received into the stomach forced the pasfage through the guts, how comes it not to run in the chanmel it had made for it self? or did it not like that passage when 1

when other things came into it, and therefore found out a more (ecret one into the bladder? but if that were made by the water, how came it to be so full of membranes, and so subjest to dilatation? Thus ridiculous will men make themselves, rather than shew themselves men in owning and adoring that infinitely wife and powerful God, who orders all things in the world according to the counsel of his Will. What can be more plain and evident than the peculiar usefulness of the several parts of mans body is? What other intent can be imagined that man is formed with a mouth, but only for taking in of nourishment, and for receiving and letting forth of air? or that an infant is so ready to open his mouth, but that there are breaks and milk for him to fuck in order to his nourishment? Why should the Oesophagus be so hollow and the stomach so wide, but that one was provided for the better conveyance of the meat down, and the other for the fermentation of it? Whence come all the other vessels to be so conveniently placed, were it not for the distribution of nourishment into the feveral parts, or for conveying away the excrements of it? Can any one think that the several muscles and tendons should be placed in the more solid parts for any other end than for the better motion of them? or that the nerves Thould be derived from the brain into the feveral parts of the body for any other design than to be the instruments of sense and motion? or that the continual motion of the heart should be for any other purpole, than for receiving and distribution of the blood through the arteries into the parts of the body? or that the eye with all its curious fabrick should be only accidentally imployed in seeing? These things are so plain, that however the Epicureans may more eafily lofe themselves and deceive others in explaining the appearances of nature in some inanimate beings, yet when they come with their blind concourse of Atems to give an account of the parts of animals. they miferably befool themselves and expose themselves only to contempt and pity. It were easie to multiply examples in this kind, but I shall only mention one thing more, which is, if all the parts of mans body have no higher original than the concourse of Atoms in the first man and woman, by what were the umbilical veff is formed whereby the Child in the womb receives its nourishment? by what Atoms was the passage of

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the success nutritius framed from the Mother to the Child? how come those vellels to close up so naturally upon the birth of the Child and it to feek its nours shment in quite another way? Will the particles of matter which by their concretion formed the first pair, salve this too? Thus still we see how impossible it is (to go no further than our selves) to give any tolerable account of things without an infinite power and Being which produced all these things, and hath left so plain an inscription of himself upon the works of nature, that none but

those who shut their eyes can abstain from seeing it.

I come now to the third evidence of a Deity, which is, that there are some beings in the world which cannot depend upon matter or motion, i. e. that there are some spiritual and immaterial Substances or Beings (for if the thing be acknowledged, it is unbecoming a man to contend about words) the confequence of this for the proving a Deity, neither hath been nor I suppose will be denied by such who question an infinite Being, the same principles leading to the denying and the proof of both, and immaterial Beings being the strongest proof that there is fomething above matter in the world. If there be then fuch things in the World which matter and motion cannot be the causes of, then there are certainly spiritual and immaterial Beings, and that I shall make appear both as to the minds of men, and some extraordinary effects which are produced in the world.

1. I begin with the nature of the foul of man. And herein I must confine my self to those arguments which directly prove my present purpole, and on that account must guit all those common arguments to prove the foul's immortality from the attributes of God; for all these do suppose the existence of a Deity as already evident; neither can I rely with safety on the way which some have taken to prove the immortality of the soul merely from the phanomena of sensation, which they endeavour to prove cannot be performed by mere matter and motion; for granting all this, yet the utmost that can be proved by it is no greater immortality in our fouls than in the (ouls of Brutes; and in the sence in which that is admitted. I suppose an Epicurean will not deny the soul of man, to be immortal as Demonax in Lucian said, when he was asked whether the foul were immortal or no, it is (faid he) but as

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Sect. 17. 3.

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all things else are; for those who make the foul to be nothing but some more subtle and active particles of matter, do not think that upon death they are annihilated, but that only they are dispersed and dissipated, or in the Platonists phrase, may return to the foul of the world. These ways I cannot think to be sufficient productions of such a spiritual and immaterial Being in man which we now enquire for, much less can I make use of so precarious and infirm an hypothesis as pra-existence, which makes men apt to suspect the cogency of such reasons which tend to prove the immortality of the foul, which are linked with a supposition, not only inevident either to sense or reason, but likewise needless and impertment. For I know no one argument which doth directly prove the immateriality of the Toul, that doth in the least inferr any necessity of pra-existence, but on the same accounts it will prove the soul's eternity. Being therefore thus at liberty to enquire into the nature of the foul considered in her felf, our only way must be to find out fuch peculiar properties in the foul of man, which cannot be falved on supposition, there were nothing else but matter and motion in the world. Supposing then that all sensation in man doth arise from corporeal motion, which is so strongly afferted by the modern Philosophers, and that the highest conceptions which depend on fense can amount no higher than imagination, which is evident; if it can then be proved that there is a principle of action in man which proceeds in a different way of operation than sensation doth, and that there are such operations of the foul which are not imaginations, it will be then clear that there is a principle in man higher than matter and motion. Now although it be a task sufficiently difficult to explain the manner of sensation it self in a mere mechanical way, supposing no higher principle than mere matter, yet it will appear far more difficult, nay impossible without a spiritual or immaterial Being to falve fuch appearances in man which transcend the power of imagination; which will appear by these following operations of the mind which every one who hath it, may find within himself."

1. Correcting the errors of imagination. For if all our perceptions were nothing else but the images of corporeal things left in the brain, the judyment of the mind must of necessity be according to the impressions, which are made upon the

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Organs of sense. But now if our minds can and do form apprehensions of things quite different from those which are conveyed by sense, there must be a higher principle of knowledge in man than imagination is. For which the common instance of the just magnitude of the Sun is very plain; If we judge according to the image which is conveyed to the brain by our eyes, we can never imagine the Sun to be bigger than he feems to us to be? nay though the fight be advantaged by the help of Telescopes, it cannot receive such an Image or Idea of the Sun which answers to its just magnitude, viz. that it is 160 times bigger than the Earth. From whence now comes this apprehension of the bigness of the Sun above that proportion which can possibly come in at our senses? If it be said, that by the observation of the lessening of objects according to the proportion of distance, the mind may come to understand how much bigger the Sun may be than he seems, I grant it, but withal enquire how the imagination comes to have proportions and distances which are mere respects, and can have no corporeal phantasms whereby to be represented to it; so that by this very way of ratiocination it is evident, that there is some principle in man beyond imagination. Again, when the mind by ratiocination hath proceeded thus far and finds the Sun to be so great, what Idea is there of this magnitude in the mind? the mind cannot fix it self on any thing but it must have an Idea of it; from whence comes this Idea? not from corporeal phantasms; for none of them could ever convey the due magnitude of the Sun to the mind, and therefore the forming of this Idea must be a pure ast of Intellection which corrects the errors of imagination, and is a principle above it. So in the fight of a flick, when under water, the representation of it by the sense to imagination is as crooked; for corporeal motion carries things to the eye, without any judgment upon them; the eye conveys the image to the brain; and according to the rules of corporeal perception must presently take every thing for true which is conveyed thither; now from what principle is it that this error of our senses is corrected? So in many other things wherein our imaginations are quite puzled, and when we go according to them, it is impossible to apprehend things as our reason tells us they are; thus as to the Antipodes our imaginations are wholly of the mind of the ancients, Ddd 2

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that the Antipodes to us must needs be in danger of knocking their heads against the Stars, and if they go upon any thing, it must be their heads, and that that part of the Heavens which is in the other Hemisphere is below us; these are pertinacious errors of imagination while we adhere to that, and are only corrigible by our reason, which makes it evident to be otherwise. Besides, there are many things our reason and understanding inform us that they may be, and yet our imaginations can form no Idea of them; let an Epicurean Philosopher try the power of his imagination in his Inane or Infinite empty space, and he will soon find, that as strong as his Phancy is, it will foon tire and retreat as not being able to course through so unimaginable a Space. So for eternal duration our reason tells us the thing is possible, but when our imaginations begin to fradle up some conceptions of it, they are presently tying both ends together; which will make a strange Idea of eternity; the case is the same in the infinite divisibility of quantity, which Epicurus was some. what aware of when he denied the thing. But how many Mathematical Problems are there which will jade our imaginations presently, and yet our reason stands still and asfures us of the possibility of the things, as in two lines coming nearer still to each other, and yet never meeting, and in many other things, which most clearly evidence that there is a higher faculty in man which exceeds matter and motion, when it is able thus to correct the faults and to supply the defects of imagination.

Sect. 18.

2. Reflex acts of the mind upon it self, argue a higher principle than imagination. That there are such things are evident to any one who hath any use of cogitation; and if any one doubt of it, his very doubting argues he hath reflex acts; for he could not doubt whether he had or no, but by reflection upon himself. Now that reflex acts should be caused through matter and motion, or through mere imagination is unconceivable. For we see no matter can act upon it self; indeed one part of extended matter may act upon another, but not purely upon it self; the extremities of the fingers can never feel themselves, though they may touch each other; neither can imagination reflect on it self; for that proceeding upon corporeal images, must have such a representation from the senses of what it acts upon;

now what image of it self can be conveyed to the imaginationthrough the external organs of sense? The eye may see through the motion of the objects of fight pressing upon it; but how can it see that it sees? so the imagination receives the images convered to the brain; but what shop hath it to make new ones in of it self, and so be guilty of the greatest Idolatry of worshipping its own Image? But though the imagination cannot thus reflect, yet we find fuch a principle within us that is very apt to retire into it self, and recollect things which could never have been conserved so long in that shop of shadows, the Imagination. For if imagination be nothing else but as a modern Philosopher defines it, conception remaining, and a little and Hobs Humane little decaying from and after the act of sense, like the motion Nature, ch. 3. of water after a stone is thrown into it, how is it possible that feet. 1. at so great a distance of years, as we commonly find, the image of a thing may be retrieved with as much facility and freshness as to circumstances, as if it were but new done? and that account which he gives of remembrance is very weak and insufficient, when he tells us, that remembrance is nothing else but the missing of parts, which every man expecteth should succeed after they have a conception of the whole. For according to this, it is impossible for the men to retrive any object without mutilation of it; and so there cannot possibly be a recollecting of all circumstances, when an object is once passed, and the motion begins to decay. But all this while, we understand nothing by what means this decaying motion should continue so long as our memory can fetch things back, or by what means an object when once passed, can be recovered again, if memory be nothing else but decaying motion. Such perplexities must needs arise, when men will undertake to salve the inward operations of the foul by mere motion; but is it not evident that many times when the mind is imployed about other things, some phanta (ms of things long ago past will come and present themselves to the: mind with as much clearness as if new done? whereas if memory were decaying motion, the longer past, the more impossible would it be to recover any thing; but, do we not find that many eld men will better remember the circumstances of many things they did in their Child-bood than a year or two before? Befides, we see what quickness and vivacity there is in our intellectual faculties above corporeal motion, with what facility the

mind turns it felf from one object to another, how suddenly it rangeth the whole world, how it trips over mountains, croffeth the ocean, mounts to the skies, and at last quarries upon it felf. and all in the twinkling of an intellectual eye? As quick as the eye of the body is, the mind far exceeds it, and can withdraw the imagination from attending the organs of sense, thus do men who have their minds much fixed, fix their eyes too; and yet afterwards can scarce tell themselves what they have looked on all that while. Sometimes the mind fits and compares phantalms together, and forts it felf in forting them into several ranks and orders, and making matches between fuch things which are fure to have no affinity with each other, which are thence called entia rationis, or the creatures of the mind. And can all these and many other such operations which men are conscious to themselves of, be nothing else but the metion of fome flegmatick matter, the reaction of the brain, and the

mere effects of Imagination?

3. The profund speculations of the mind argue a power far above imagination and corporeal motion. I wonder how Epicurus his foul, when, if we believe him, it was made up of Atoms, could ever imagine an Infinite Vacuity? Could mere Atoms ever diffute whether they were Atoms or no? For I doubt not but Epicurus was fain to argue much against himfelf, before he could perfuade himself to so stupendious a piece of folly? Were there nothing in man but mere corporeal motion, whence came the dispute, whether the soul were corporeal or no? Can Atoms frame Syllogisms in mood and figure? and mere matter argue pro and con, whether it be matter or fomething else? What kind of aereal particles were their souls compounded of, who first famsied themselves to be immaterial? What strange agitations of matter were those which first made men think of an eternal state? which thoughts have ever since fo stuck upon these little spherical bodies, that they could never yet disburthen themselves of them: Whence come such amazing fears, fuch dreadfull apprehensions, such sinking thoughts of their future condition in minds that would fain eale themselves by believing, that death would put a period both to foul and body? Whence on the other fide come fuch encourageing hopes, fuch confident expectations, fuch comfortable prepoffefsions of their future state, in the souls of good men, when their bodies

bodies are nearest to the grave? Seneca, who was somewhat dubious sometimes as to the future condition of the foul, yet could tell his dear Lucilius with what pleasure he could think of it; and could elsewhere say of the soul, Et bic habet argumentum Praf ad Quat. divinitatis suæ quod illum divina delectant, nec ut alienis inter. Natur. eft (ed ut fuis: the foul had that mark of Divinity in it, that it was mift pleased with Divine speculations, and conversed with them as with matters which nearly concerned it. And when it hath once viewed the dimensions of the Heavens, contemnit domicilii prior is angustias, it was ashamed of the cottage it dwelt in; nay, were it not for these speculations, non fuerat operæ pretium nasei, it had not been worth while for the soul to have been in the body; and as he goes on, detrahe hoc inestimable bonum, non est vita tanti ut sudem, ut astuem. Could there be now fo great an Epicurism in contemplation, were the soul of man of Epicurus his mould, a mere complexion of Atoms? would dull and beauty matter ever have delighted to have fearched fo much into the causes of things, to have gone over the world in its speculations, and found more sweetness in knowledge, than the little Epicure, the Bee, tasts in his choicest flowers? Epicurus his own Philosophy is a demonstration against himself; if his foul had not been of a purer nature than he fanfied, he would never have made his fudy of Philosophy a part of his Epicurism? had his soul been such Atoms as he fansied, when his brain had been well heated at his study, those more vivid and spirituous particles, like the spirits of wine, had been in danger of evaporation, and leaving the more lumpish matter to complete his work. Of all persons, I most admire that Philosopbers, who make so much use of their understandings, should to ungratefully requite them, and ferve them like old borfes, when they have made them doe all the fervice they could, turn them into the high-ways, and let them die in a ditch. But yet all Philosophers have not been so unthankfull, some have underflood the worth of their foul, and afferted it, if they have not used too high, i.e. Platonical expressions of it, making it a particle, not of matter, but of the Divine nature it felf, a little Deity in a Cottage, that stays here a-while, and returns to that upper Region from whence it came. As Manilius speaks.

Manil. I. 4.

An dubium est habitare Deum sub pectore nostro, In calumque redire animas, caloque venire?

And while the foul is here in its cage, it is continually fluttering up and down, and delighteth to look out now at this part, and then at another, to take a view by degrees of the whole Universe, as the same Poet goes on,

Quid mirum noscere mundum Si possunt homines, quibus est & mundus in ipsis : Exemplumque Dei qui (que est in imagine parva?

The foul hath nothing more delightfull to it than knowledge, and no knowledge so pleasing and satisfactory as of him whose image and superscription it bears, who makes himself most known to such as enquire after him;

Seque ipsum inculcat & offert Ut bene cognosci possit.

I conclude this with that of Seneca, in that excellent Preface to his natural questions, O quam contempta res est homo nist supra humana se erexerit! what a pitifull thing is man, were it not that his soul was apt to soar above these earthly things? And by this aptness to soar so high above these terrene objects, and to converse with so much freedom with spiritual Beings, as well as abstracted notions, we may certainly inferr that our rational souls are of a far more noble and refined nature, than that more seculent principle of imagination which always converses in sace Romuli, and can go no further than our senses carry it. And thus I have made good the first proof, that there is something above matter and motion in the world, which is from that immaterial Being which is in man.

Sect. 19.

The next evidence which we have of a Being above matter and motion, is, from the extraordinary effects which have been in nature. I speak not now merely of such things which by their natures and effects are manifested to proceed from some Beings which bear ill-will to mankind, multitudes of which are related by men philosophical and inquisitive, with such

enumerations of circumstances, and particular evidences, that they are not mere impostures, that one may on the same grounds question any matter of fact which himself did not see, as fuch relations which are delivered by persons without interest or design, and such as were able to judge of the truth of circumstances; such are both ancient and modern Philosophers, Phylicians, States men, and others. Neither shall I insist on such prodigies, which oft-times presage revolutions in States, if we believe Machiavel himself, who in a whole chapter designedly Disput.l.r.c. 56. proves it; and professeth himself utterly to seek for the causes of them, unless they may be attributed to some firsts and intelligences in the air which give the world notice of fuch things to come. But those things which I suppose have the most clear and undoubted evidence of true and undoubted miracles (the matters of fact being affirmed by eye-witnesses, who sealed the truth of them with their lives) are those recorded in the holy Scriptures; which there are only two ways to evade, either by questioning the truth of the things, which I suppose in the precedent book we have proved with as much rational evidence as any thing of that nature is capable of, or else that the things therein recorded might be salved without a Deity. For which only two ways have been excogitated by Atheistical firits, either attributing them to the power and influence of the Stars, the foundations of which fond and absurd opinion have been taken away by those many Writers, who have rationally V. D. H. More's confuted the whole Art of Judicial Astrology, or else that they Mystery of are done by the mere power of imagination, which is the way Godliness, 1.7. of Avicenna and some other Arabick Writers, which is so c.14,15,16,17. wild an effect of the power of imagination, that nothing doth so much demonstrate the irregular motions of it, as such an opinion doth; and is sufficiently derided and refuted by Pomponatius himself. Now then, it being an acknowledged principle in nature, that every thing continues in the course it is in, tell something more powerfull put it out, if then such things have been in the world, which have been real alterations of the course of nature, as the Suns fanding still in the time of Joshua, then there must be something above matter and motion, and confequently that there is a God.

CHAP. II.

Of the Origin of the Universe.

The necessity of the belief of the Creation of the world in order to the truth of Religion. Of the several Hypotheses of the Philosophers who contradict Moses: with a particular examination of them. The ancient tradition of the world con-Sonant to Moses; proved from the Ionick Philosophy of Thales, and the Italick of Pythagoras. The Pythagorick Cabbala rather Agyptian than Mosaick. Of the fluid matter, which was the material principle of the Universe. Of the Hypothesis of the eternity of the world afferted by Ocellus Lucanus and Aristotle. The weakness of the foundations on which that opinion is built. Of the manner of forming principles of Philosophy. The possibility of creation proved. No arguing from the present state of the world against its beginning, thewed from Maimonides. The Platonists arguments from the goodness of God for the eternity of the world, answered. Of the Stoical Hypothesis of the eternity of matter; whether reconcilable with the Text of Moses. Of the Opinions of Plato and Pythagoras concerning the præ-existence of matter to the formation of the world. The contradiction of the eternity of matter to the nature and attributes of God. Of the Atomical Hypothesis of the Origin of the Universe. The world could not be produced by a casual concourse of Atoms proved from the nature and motion of Epicurus bis Atoms, and the Phanomena of the Universe, especially the production and nature of Animals. Of the Cartesian Hypothesis, that it cannot salve the Origin of the Universe without a Deity giving motion to matter.

Sect. 1. THE Foundations of Religion being thus established in the Being of God, and the Immortality of the Soul, we now come to erect our superstructure upon them, by afferting the undoubted truth and certainty of that account of the world which is given us in the writings of Moses. Which beginning with the world it self, leads us to a particular consideration

of the Origin of the Universe, the right understanding of which hath very great influence upon our belief of all that follows in the Word of God. For although we should affert with Epicurus the Being of a Deity, if yet with him we add that the world was made by a cafual concourse of Atoms, all that part of Religion which lies in obedience to the Will of God is unavoidably destroyed. All that is left, is only a kind of Veneration of a Reing more excellent than our own, which reacheth not to the government of men's lives, and so will have no force at all upon the generality of the world, who are only allured by hopes or awed by fears, to that which of their choice they would be glad to be freed from. Besides, What expressions of gratitude can be left to God for his goodness, if he interpose not in the affairs of the world? What dependence can there be on divine goodness, if it benot at all manifested in the world? What apprehensions can we have of God's infinite wisdom and power, if neither of them are discernible in the Being of the world? And as the opinion of Epicurus destroys Religion, so doth that of Aristotle which attributes eternity to the Universe, and a necessary emanation of it from the first cause, as light comes from the Sun; for if so, as Maimo- More Nevoch. nides well observes, the whole religion of Moses is overthrown, P. 2. c. 25. all his miracles are but impostures, all the hopes which are grounded on the Promises of God, are vain and fruitless. For if the world did of necessity exist, then God is no free agent; and if so, then all instituted Religion is to no purpose; nor can there be any expectation of reward, or fear of punishment from him who hath nothing else to doe in the world; but to set the great wheel of the Heavens going: So much is it our concernment to enquire into the true original of the world; and on what evidence of reason those opinions are built, which are so contrary to that account given of it in the very entrance of the Books of Moles. Wherein we read the true origin of the world to have been by a production of it by the omnipotent Will and Word of God. This being then the plain affertion of Mofer, we come to compare it, in point of reason, with all those feveral bypotheses which are repugnant to it, which have been embraced in several ages by the Philosophers of greatest esteem in the world. Which may be reduced to these four: 1. Such as suppose the world to have existed as it is from all eternity.

Eee 2

2. Such

2. Such as attribute the formation of the world as it is to God: but withall affert the præ-existence and eternity of matter. 2. Such as deny any eternity to the world, but affert the origin of it to have been by a calual concourse of atoms. 4. Such as endeavour to explain the origin of the Universe and all appearances of nature, merely by the Mechanical Laws of the motions of matter.

I begin with those who afferted the eternity of the world as it is, among whom Aristotle hath born the greatest name:

Sect. 2.

10,1.1.6.10.

who feems to have arrogated this opinion to himfelf; for when he enquires into the judgment of the Philosophers, who had Ariflot, de ca- Writ before him, he says of them, Jusulyov who &v 2 may 25 & vai ganv, all the Philosophers afferted that the world was made, tho' fome one way, fome another. And were this true which Aristotle saith, it would be the strongest prejudice against his opinion; for if the world had been eternal, how should it come to pass, that the eldest Philosophers should so readily and unanimously embrace that opinion which afferted the production of the world? Was it not a strong presumption of the novity of the Universe, that all Nations to whom the Philosophers reforted had memorials left among them of the first origin of things? And from hence it is observable, that when the bumour of philosophizing began to take the Greeks (about the XL Olympiad, when we may suppose Thales to flourish) the beginning of the world was no matter of dispute, but, taking that for granted, the enquiry was, out of what material Principle the Universe was formed; of which Thales thus delivers his De Nat. Deor. opinion in Tully; aquam dixit esse initium rerum, Deum autem eam mentem quæ ex aqua cunêta fingeret; wherein he plainly distinguisheth the efficient from the material cause of the world. The prime efficient was God, the material principle, water. It is a matter of some enquiry, whether the first principles of Philosophy among the Greeks were not rather some traditional things conveyed to them from others, than any certain Theories which they had formed from their own experiments and observations. The former is to me far the more probable on many accounts, but chiefly on this, that the first principles of the two Founders of the chief letts of Philolophers, viz. the Ionick and Italick (for all the other were but the various illues of these two) did come so near to that which we have

b. I. cap. 25.

have the greatest reason to believe to have been the most certain account of the origin of the world. For this opinon of Thales feems to have been part of that universal traduion which was continued in the world concerning the first principles of things: for I do not see any reason to averr with so much considence, as some doe, that those Philosophers who spake any thing confonantly to Moles, must prefently converse with the Fews, transcribe their opinions out of the Scriptures, or have them conveyed to them in some secret Cabbala of the Creation, as it is affirmed of Pythagoras and Plato, and may with no less reason of Thales. But this I suppose may be made evident to any considerative person, that those Philosophers of Greece, who conversed most abroad in the world, did speak far more agreeably to the true account of things, than fuch who only endeavoured by their own wits to improve or correct those principles which were delivered by the other Philosophers. Which I impute not to much to their converse with the Mosaick writings, as to that universal tradition of the first ages of the world, which was preserved far better among the Phanicians, Experians, Chaldeans, and others, than among the Greeks. For which we have this evident reason, that Greece was far more barbarous and rude in its elder times, than those other Nations were, which had means of preserving some monuments and general reports of the first ages of the world, when the Gracians wanted them. And therefore we find that Greece from its beginning (hined with a borrowed light; and faw not by an extramission of rays of knowledge from it self, but by an intromission of those representations of things which were received from other Nations. Those who formed Greece first into civil societies, and licked it into the shape of well ordered Common-wealths, were fuch who had been traders for knowledge into foreign parts. To which purpose Diodorus Siculus informs us that Lycurgus and Solon, as well as the Poets, Orpheus, Museus, Melampus and Homer, and the Philo. Biblioth. I. 1. Sophers, afterwards Pythagoras, Plato, and others, had gained V. Euseb. Prap. must of their knowledge and wisdom out of Ægypt; nay, he faith in general, one of mag' Endun Sesseaulow on overe is παιδεία, παρέβαλον είς Αίγυπον εν τοις άρχαιοις χρόνοις, ίνα την ενταυθα νομίμων η ais sias μελάσωπν. All those who were renowned among the Greeks for wildom and learning, did in ancient

thank

Diog. Laert. proæm. p. 7.

time resort to Ægypt, to be acquainted with their Laws and knowledge. On this account therefore we are not to feek for the ancient and genuine tradition of the world from the native and home-bred Greeks, fuch as Aristotle and Epicurus, but from those who took the pains themselves to search into those records which were preferved among the elder and more knowing Nations: And although the Nations they reforted to, fought to advance their own reputation in the bistories of their ancient times, of which we have already given a large account, yet they were more faithfull in the account which they gave of the origin of the whole Universe. For it appears from Diogenes Laertius, that the Ægyptians did constantly believe, that the world had a beginning, and was corruptible; that it was a spherical, and the stars were of the nature of fire; that the soul was if an immortal nature, and did pass up and down the world. Which Laertius cites from Hecatæus and Aristagoras. So that we need not make Pythagoras acquainted with such a Cabbala of the Creation, which in all probability neither the Fews nor he ever dreamt of; we find a fair account may be given of most of the opinions of Pythagoras, and whence he derived them, without forcing the words of Moses into such a sence, which the plainness and perspicuity of the writings of Moses, argue them not capable to admit of. But I will not deny from those concurrent testimonies of Her-V. Selden, de jure nat. Egen' mippus and Aristobulus, besides Origen, Porphyrie, Clemens Alexandrinus, and others, that Pythagoras might have had op-portunity of conversing with the fews, (which it is most probable was in Chaldaa, after the Captivity, at which time Pythagoras was there among them) but that Pythagoras should converse with the successors of Elisha on mount Carmel, as Vossius thinks: or that Moschus the Sidonian Philosopher, in Philosoph. c. 6. Iamblichus, should be Moses, as others fansie; or that præexistence of souls should be part of the Mosaick Cabbala; or that the Pythagorick numbers, as they are explained by Nicomachus Gerasenus in Photius, should be adaquate to the days of the Creation Cabbalistically understood, are fancies too extravagant and Pythagorean, to be easily embraced. If Pythagoras was circumcifed, it was more for love of the Agyptians than the Jews, among whom he spent his twenty two years; if præ-existence of souls be a rational hypothesis, we may

Voss. de Settes

apud Ebraos, l. I. c. 2.

Sect. 5.

thank the Egyptians for it, and not Moses; if numbers be so expressive of the work of Creation, we are beholding to the A. rithmetical Hieroglyphicks of Agypt for them. But although Pythagor as might not be acquainted with fuch a philosophick V. Mathem Hi-Cabbala of the Creation, which none of the fews, as far as we eroglyph. Kircan find, understood, till one more versed in Plato and Pytha- Cheri. Tom. 3. Oedip. Ægypt. goras than in the learning of his own Nation, viz. Philo of Alexandria, began first to exercise his wit on the Text of Moses, with Platonick notions; yet I shall easily grant that Pythagoras, by means of his great industry and converse with the learned Nations, might attain to far greater knowledge of many mysterious things in natural Philosophy, and as to the origin of the Universe, than any of the home-bred Philosophers of Greece, or it may be, than any one of the Nations he reforted to, because he had the advantage of comparing the several accounts of them together, and extracting out that which he judged the best of them. And hence Plutarch tells us, that Plutarch de the first principles of the world, according to Pythagoras, were Plat philos. 1.1. these two, the one was to moinsinov ailion is eidinor (ones or ves o Seds) an active and forming principle, and that was God, whom he called Mind, (as Anaxagoras likewife did) the other. Was to madulinov te x uninov (once Bar o opelos xooms) pallive and material, which is, the visible world.

And thus we see these two renowned Founders of the lonick and Italick (ocieties of Philosophers, both giving their concurrent Testimony with Moses as to the true origin of the world, and not at all differing from each other; for thus Thales speaks in Diogenes Laertius, neer Buralor & orlar, Debs a govn- V. Thalet. τον β, κάλλισον κόσμΦ, ποιήμα β See, God is the eldest Being, because unbegotten; the world the most beautifull, because it is God's workmanship. To which those expressions of Plato, in his Timæus, come very near (whose Philosophy was for sub- Plato in Timeo, stance the same with the Pythagorean) when he had before p. 1047. ed. Fiascribed the production of the world to the goodness of God, cini. which goodness of his did incline him to make all other things like himself. Θέμις ετ' ων ετ' όξι τω αρίσω δράν αλλο πλίω το randisev. For the most excellent being cannot but produce the. most excellent effects. And as to the material principle out of which the world was made, there appears no great difference between the ishe of Thales, and the inn of Plato

SeEt. 3!

and

Relig.

115, p. 25. ed. Meurs.

and Pythagorus; for Plato, when he tells us what a kind of thing the material principle was, he describes it thus, in h-Chalcid Tima- ου γίαν άρον άλλα κινέμθρον πλημμελώς κ) άτάκθως, which as Chalcidius renders it, is motu importuno fluctuans neque unquam quiescens, it was a visible corporeal thing (au soov no oeglov') which was never at rest, but in continual disorderly motion and agitation: which is a full explication, I suppose, of what Thales meant by his water, which is the same with that inie or mixture of mud and water together, which others speak of as the principle of the Universe; as Orpheus, in Athenagode Ver. Christ. ras, and the Scholiast on Apollonius cited by Grotius and o-Which we have the more reason to believe, because the successors of Thales, Anaximander and Anaxagoras, express themselves to that purpose. Anaximander called the Sea, f mesorns vyeadas reitavov, the remainder of the primitive moisture: and Anaxagoras fays, before the NES, or God, set things in their order, πάνλα χεήμαλα ην όμε πεφυεμβία, all things were at first confused together: which must needs make that which Chalcidius tells us Numenius attributes to Pythagoras,

Chalcid.inTim. which his Translator calls Sylvam fluidam, or fluid Matter. P. 394.

Which is the same likewise with the Phanicians Mar, which Euleb. Prap, E- as appears by Eulebius, some call ίλον, others ύλατώδες μίξεως vang. l.1. c.10. on tw, some, mud or sime, others, the putrefaction of watery mixtures, which they fay was, orope Mirews it Sovers onov, the feed-plot of the Creation and the generation of things. Thus we fee how Thales with the Phanicians from whom he was derived, as Laertius tells us and Pythagoras, with the Agyptians and others, concurr with Moles, not only in the production

Gen. 1. 2.

of the world, but in the manner of it, wherein is expressed a fluid matter which was the material principle out of which the world was formed, when we are told that the earth was without form and void, and the Spirit of God moved upon the face of the waters, i.e. that all at first was but fluid matter; for P. Fagus, from R. Kimchi, renders 1771 by Jan, which fluad matter was agitated and moved by the Divine Spirit, or the vis plastica mundi, so Chrysostom calls it driegyera Colini and · so Drussus and P. Fagius explain ATT by motion or agitation. And herein we have likewise the consent of those forenamed excellent Philosophers, who attribute the origin of particular things in the world to this agitation or motion of the

Chap.2. The Divine Authority of the Scriptures afferted.

the fluid master. For Chalcidius speaking not only of Thales, ChalcidinTem. Pythagoras, Plato, but of Anaximenes, Heraclitus, and others, P. 378. fays thus of them, omnes igitur bi--in motu positam rerum originem censuerunt: they all agreed in this, that the Origin of things was to be ascribed to the motion of the parts of matter. So the Phanicians called this motion of the particles of matter άξοα ζορώδη κ΄ πυευματώδη a dark and blustering wind. And how suitable this explication of the Origin of things from the motion of fluid matter is to the history of nature, appears by those many experiments by which mixt bodies are shewed to spring from no other material principle than the particles of fluid matter. Of which you may read a discourse of that ingenious and learned Gentleman Mr. Boyle in his Sceptical Chy- Sceptical Chymist. Only thus much may here suffice to have made it ap-mist.p.115. &c. pear, that all those Philosophers, who were most inquisitive after the ancient and genuine tradition of the world concerning the first beginning of things, did not only concur with Moses in the main thing, that its beginning was from God, but in the particular circumstances of it, as to the fluid matter and the motion thereof. Concerning which I may yet add, if it be

Ωκανός, όσωες γένεσις σάντεωι τέτυκται.

material, the Testimony of Homer in Plutarch.

And in Chalcidius: Inque eadem sententia Homerus esse invenitur, cum Oceanum & Thetin dicat parentes esse genituræ; cumque jusjurandum Deorum constituat aquam, quam quidem Chalcid.p. 178. ipse appellat Stygem, antiquitati tribuens reverentiam, & jure- V Meurs in. jurando nibil constituens reverentius. To which purpose likewife Aristotle speaks in his Metaphysicks, that the reason why Metaphys. l. 1. Styx was made the oath of the Gods, was because water was c. 3. supposed to be the material principle of things, which he faith Was aszaia मेंड क्याम में स्वभवां कहा में क्रंक्यां में क्रंक्यां कहा में क्रंक्यां के हैं व, a most ancient tradition concerning the Origin of the Universe. And tells us before, that some were of opinion, Tes παμπαλαίες, κ) πολύ wee της νου γενέσεως η πρώτες Βεολογήσαντας, that the most ancient and remote persons and first writers of Theology held this opinion of water being the first material principle of things.

Ilind. E.

Odyff. E.

Chal. p. 37.

Sect. 4.

Having thus made it appear what a consent there was between the ancient tradition of the world, and the writings of Moses concerning the Origin of the world; I now come to consider upon what pretence of reason this tradition came to be contradicted, and the eternity of the world afferted. For which we are to consider, that the difference of the former Philosophers of the Ionick feet, after the time of Thales, as to the material principle of the world, one substituting air, another fire instead of water, rendred the tradition its felf suspected among other Philosophers, especially when the humour of innovating in Philosophy was got among them, and they thought they did nothing unless they contradicted their Masters; thence came that multiplicity of Sects presently among them, and that Philosophy which at first went much on the original tradition of the world, was turned into disputes and altercations, which helped as much to the finding out of Truth, as the fighting of two Cocks on a dung-bill doth to the finding out the Fervel that lies there. For which, scraping and searching into the natures of things had been far more proper, than contentions and wranglings with each other; but by means of this litigious humour, Philosophy from being a design, grew to be a mere Art, and he was accounted the best Philosopher, not that fearched further into the bowels of nature, but that dreffed and tricked up the notions he had in the best posture of defence against all who came to oppose him. From hence those opinions were most plausible, not which were most true, but which were most defensible, and which Des-Cartes his second element. had all the Angles cut off, on which their adversaries might have an advantage of jufling upon them, and then their opinions were accounted most pure when they are so spherical, as to pass up and down without interruption. From such a degeneracy of Philosophy as this we have now mentioned, arose the opinion of the eternity of the world; for the certain tradition of the world being now lost in a crowd of Philosophers, whose main aim was to set up for themselves, and not to trade with the common bank, so that there could be no certain and convictive evidence given to a shuffling Philosopher that things were ever otherwise than they are; they found it most defenfible to affert that the world never had a beginning, nor would have an end, but always did, and would cominue in the State they they were in. This opinion, though Aristotle seems to make all before him to be of another mind, yet was hatched, as far as we can find, at first, under Pythagoras his successors by Ocellus Lucanus, as appears by his book still extant, we The TE Tar-Tos ovoras of the nature of the Universe; to whom Aristotle hath not been a little beholding, as Ludov. Nogarola hath in part manifested in his notes on Ocellus, although Arifotle had not the ingenuity of Pliny, agnoscere per quos profeserit. From Aristotle this opinion together with his name, spread it felf much farther, and became the opinion most in vegue among the Heathen Philosophers, especially after the rise of Christianity; for then not only the Peripateticks, but the modern Platonists, Plotinus, Apuleius, Taurus, Jamblichus, Alcinous, Proclus and others, were all engaged in the defence of the eternity of the world, thinking thereby the better to overthrow Christianity. Hence came the hot and eager contests between Proclus, Simplicius, and Philoponus, who undertook to answer Proclus his eighteen arguments for the eternity of the world, and to charge Aristotle with self-contradiction in reference to it. But nothing were they more troubled a. bout, than to reconcile the Timaus of Plato with the eternity of the world, which they made to be a mere Hypothesis, and a kind of Diagramme to falve providence withal; although the plain words of Plato not only there, but elsewhere do express, as far as we can judge by his way of writing, his real judgment to have been for the production of the world by God. Platon. Sophift. For which purpose we have this observable Testimony in his p. 185. Ed. Fic. Sophifta, where he divides all manner of productions of things into divine and humane, and opposes the opinion that conceived all things to be produced by an eternal power, to the opinion of the vulgar, which faith he, was The poster auth forar and Tivos airas autománis na aveu Savoias outons, that all things were produced by a blind force of nature without any reason or coun-(el, to which he opposeth the other opinion, that they are made ut roys to it officients delas and bes nyvouling, by a divine power with infinite reason and wisdom, and when Theætetus expresseth himself in an Academical way as to either of these opinions, the bo pes Eleatensis, who there acts the part of the Philosopher, tells him, if he thought he were inclinable to the Other opinion, vuv av to royo we miles avayualas emexeigeld

the contrary by the evidence of reason which he would bring. And we shall see what great reason there is for this opinion, when we consider what weak and insirm foundations the contrary is built upon. For all the arguments which either Ocellus, or Aristotle, or the modern Platonists make use of, are built on these following suppositions which are all false. I. That it is unconceivable that things should ever have been in any other state than they are. 2. That there is no other way of production but by Generation. 3. That God is no free agent, but produceth the world by necessity of nature.

Sect. 5.

I. That it is unconceivable that things (hould ever have been any otherwise than they are. The reason of which supposition was this, that the general conclusions of reason, which they proceed upon in Philosophy, were taken up from the observation of things as they are at prefent in the world. Which is evident from the ground of Aristotle's condemning the opinion of Empedocles, who afferted the production of the world, and yet the incorruptibility of it. To who Ev revedus wir, at Sion of Suas El) pava H a Dvatav, which he accounts impossible and gives this as his reason, μόνα οδ του τα θετέον εὐλόρως, ὅτα ἐπὶ πόλλων ἢ πάνων δεωμών εσάρχοντα. For, faith he, nothing elfe can be rationally afferted, but what we find to be in all things or at least in most; now because there could nothing be found in the world which was produced (i.e. by generation) and yet was incorruptible, therefore he concludes it impossible it should be so with the Universe. By which we evidently see what the grand principles of reason among the Philosophers were: viz. fuch observations as they had made from the present course of nature in the order of the Universe. From hence arose that strong presumption among them, which hath been so taken for granted, that it hath been looked on as a common notices of bumane nature, viz. ex nibilo nibil fit, which was the main argument used by them to prove the eternity of the world: and by others to prove the pra-existence of matter. So Ocellas argues

against both the dissolution and production of the world from this principle; if the world be a solven saith he, it must either be not is to do, neis to do, neis that which is, or into that which is not; it cannot be dissolved into that which is, because then the Universe cannot be destroyed; for that which is,

l. 1. cap. 10.

Arist de cælo.

V. Laer. in vit. Democriti. is either the Universe, or a part of it: neither can it be dissolved into that which is not, aunxavor of to or imotexedus in the un ον ων, η eis το μη ον αναλυθηνα. For it is impossible that a thing should Ocellus Lucanus be made out of that which is not, or be dissolved into nothing. And P. 16. ed. Com-Aristotle somewhere tells us, that it is a principle which all the mel. writers of natural Philosophy are agreed in, (week & raums out - Physic. 1.4. γνωμονέσι της δόξης Επαντες οί περί τ φύσεως) which is έκ μμόντων niveda advano, that it is impossible for any thing to come out of nothing. But now when we observe upon what grounds this principle was took up by these Philosophers, we have no reason to admit of it as an Universal standard of nature. For we find by these Naturalists, who thus afferted this principle, that when they go about to prove it, it is only from the course of Generations in the world, or from the works of Art, both which suppose matter præ existent, and from these short collections they form this universal Maxim. And from hence De Nat: 1. 1 when they discoursed of the manner whereby God did produce the world, their imaginations ran presently upon that which the Epicurean in Tully enquires after, quæ mobitio? quæ ferramenta? qui vectes? que machinæ? qui ministri tanti operis fuerunt? they apprehend God only as an Artificer that contrives the World first into a platform, and then useth instruments to erect it, and consequently still suppose the master ready for him to work upon. So true is that of Balbus in Tully when De Nat Deor. he comes to discourse of the nature of God; in quo nibil est 1.2. difficilius quam à consuetudine oculorum aciem mentis abducere; nothing is more difficult than to abstract our minds from the observations of this visible world when we seek to apprehend the Nature of the Deity. Thus we fee upon what general grounds the Philosophers proceeded, and from what they took them, and how insufficient any collections from the present order of the Universe are to determine any thing concerning its production by. For supposing a production of the world, several things must of necessity be supposed in it, different from what the present order of the world is; and it is an unreasonable thing to argue from a thing when it is in its greatest perfection, to what must always have been in the same thing; for by this means we must condemn many things for falficies which are apparently true, and beineve many others to be true which are apparently falle. For which Maimonides useth an excellent similitude. Suppose, saith he, one of Exquisite Na-

tura:

More Nevoch. 2. 2. 6. 17.

tural parts, whose Mother dies assoon he is born, and his Father brings him up in an Island, where he may have no society with mankind till he be grown up to years of understanding, and that he never fare any female of either man or beast: Suppose now this person to enquire of the first man be speaks with, how men are born, and how they come into the world. The other tells him, that every man is bred in the womb of one of the same kind with our selves, thus and thus formed; and that while we are in the womb we have a very little body, and there move and are nourished, and we grow up by little and little till we come to such a bigness, and then we come forth into the world, and yet grow still till we come to such a proportion as we are of. Here presently this young man stops him and enquires, when we were thus little in the womb and did live, move and grow, did we not eat and drink, and breath at our mouth and nostrils as we do now? did we not ease Nature as we do now? If it be answered him, no; then be prefently is ready to deny it, and offers to bring demonstrations that it was utterly impossible that it (hould be so: For, saith be, if either of us cease breathing, but for an hour, our motion and life is gone; how is it then possible for one of its though never so little, to live and move in the womb for so many months, when it is so close, and shut up, and in the middle of the body? If one of us, faith he, should (wallow a little bird, it would prefently die as soon as it came into the stomach, how much more of it were in the belly? If we should be but for fews days without eating and drinking, we could not live? bow can a Child then continue so many months without it? Again, if one doth eat and not void the excrement of what he eats, he will be killed with it in few days; bow can it possibly be otherwise with a Child? If it be replyed that there is a passage open in the belly at which the Child receives his nourishment, he will presently fay that it is as impossible as the other; for if our bellies were so open, we should be quickly destroyed. And again, if the child bath all its limbs perfect and found, how comes it not to open its eyes, use the feet, mouth and hands, as we do? And so concludes it impossible that man should ever be born after this manner. Much after this way, faith that excellent Author, do Aristotle and others argue against the production of the world; for if the world were produced, fay they, it must have been thus, . thus, and thus, and it is impossible that it should have been so: why? because we see things are otherwise now in the world. Which how infirm a way of arguing, it appears from the consideration of the former similatude, in which the Arguments are as strong to prove the impossibility of that which we know to be true, as in the case about which we dispute.

And this now leads us to the second false Hypothesis which the opinion of the world's eternity was founded on, which is, that there is no other way of production but by Generation. Most of the arguments which are used by Ocellus and Aristotle against the production of the world, run upon this supposition, that it must be generated as we see things are in the world.

SeEt. 6: 2.

So Ocellus argues, πάν τε τὸ γενέσεως άρχην είληφος, κ) διαλύσεως De Natur uniόρειλον κοινων ποτι, δύο βπδέρε) μεταβολάς μίαν αθύ των άπο μείο- vers. p. 8. v. β. δπ το μείζον, κ) τω άπο τε χείρον Θ΄ δπ το βέλδιον καλείται ή το μέν ἀρ' కπες ἀν αςξη αι μεταβάλλειν χύεπς το ή είς ο άρικνείται είκμη · δευθέραν ή την από το μείζου Φ όπι το μείον, κ) την από το Βελλίου Φ όπι το χείρου · το ή συμπέρασμα τ μεπιδολής ταυπις ονομάζεθας o Doeg, if Sidavois. Every thing that comes into being and is subjest to dissolution, bath two observable mutations in it; the one is, whereby it grows from les to greater, and from worse to better, and this is called Generation, and the height of this mutation, perfection; the other begins from better to worke, and from bigger to tels, and the conclusion of this is corruption, and dissolution. But now, faith he, if the world had a beginning, there would be such a mutation in it, and it would have grown by degrees greater till it had come to its perfection, and from thence it would fenfely decay till it came to dissolution; but no body hath ever observed such a mutation in the world, neither is there any appearance of it; and del vel auto no worder Sleaten स n' isor n' ouoier duto faute but the world is semper idem, it varies not nor alters any thing from it self. For which, he particularly instanceth in the courses, Symmetries, figures, positions, intervals, proportions of motion which are in the world, which things all are capable of fuch a mutation, yet we see no such thing in the Universe, from whence he inferrs that the universe was always and will be as it is. Upon the same principle doth Arifoile diffrate for the eternity of the world from the Nature of his materia prima, because if the first matter were generated it must be generated of other matter, and so in infinitum; and so he argues from the Nature of the Heavens that they are

evers. p. III.

not capable of generation and corruption as other bodies are. All which Arguments fignifie no more than this, that the World was not generated as Plants or Animals are; and whoever right in his wits afferted that it was? But do any of these Arguments prove it impossible that God having infinite power should produce the Universe after another way. than any of those things are produced in, which we observe in the World? For we affert an infinite and eternal Being which was the efficient cause of the world, who by his omnipotent power produced it out of nothing, and continues it in its Being; which is well expressed by the Author of the refutation of Aristotle in Justin Martyr's works. We assert, saith Aristot. dogmat. he, one God who is eternal himself, that hath nothing else coequal with himself, neither by way of subjection or opposition. whose power is so great that nothing can hinder it, by which power he produced the world, as mi " zovos to ED, is to to ED, is to mos saudien, The insine Sanow; which hath no other cause, either of its beginning, or of its being, or continuance, but only bis Will. Who fully answers in a Philosophical manner, the particular Allegations out of Aristotle, concerning the eternity of the World: his defign being, as he faith, to shew win x T The amodein linho omshuno, nat ho Emapenhor) "Enhouses week Θεβ τε καὶ κρίσεων τές λόγες πριείν, τέτο πεποιηκότας, αλλ' είκασμώ το δοκέν διοεισαμένες. That the Greek Philosophers in their discourses concerning God and the Creation, were very far from being as good as their word to observe the laws of demonstration, but instead of them proceeded only upon opinions and conjectures. And as to this particular of the possibility of another way of production, besides that of generation, he proves it from Aristotle's own opinion, from the equal necessity of the existence of matter, as of God. For, saith he, If God can produce any thing out of matter, which is as necessarily existent as bimself, he may produce something out of nothing. For the same repugnancy that there is in that which is absolutely nothing to be produced, the same must there be in that which is necessarily existent. How then can God produce something out of matter which necessarily exists, and not be able to produce something out of nothing? For if matter have its original from it self, how can it be subject to the power of another? And

Jujoin Martyr. cp. p. 123.

And besides, if we acknowledge God to have his Being from himself, and on that account attribute infinite power to him, by the same reason we must attribute it to matter. But whatever hath infinite power in it self, hath a power upon something beyond it self; but if God and matter have it both, they can never have power upon each other, or without themselves. Which is a far greater absurdity than the mere afferting a power to produce something out of nothing, which is implyed in the very notion of infinite power; for if it be consined to any matter, the power is not infinite, because we cannot but conceive the bounds of it; for it extends no farther than matter doth. So that a power of creation is implyed in the very Notion of a Deity; and therefore it is a mere Sophism to argue because the world could not be generated, therefore it could not be produced, unless any other way of production

but by generation, be proved impossible.

A third false Hypothesis they proceeded on was this, that the Reing of the world was no effect of God's will, but of the necessity of Nature. For although the Philosophers we now speak of, did affert a Deity, which in some sence might be called the cause of the world, yet they withall afferted that the world was co-equal with God himself, and so though there might be some priority in order of causes between them, yet there was none in order of time, or duration, as we see the light, though it flows from the Sun, yet the Sun is never without light. This Aristotle proves from the necessity of motion and time: For, faith he, whatever is moved, must be moved by something else, and consequently there must be a running in Infinitum; but this runs on a false supposition of the necessity of a continual physical motion in things, which we deny, fince God by his infinite power may give motion to that which had it not before; and so all that can be proved, is the necessity of some first cause, which we aftert, but no necessity at all of his continual acting, since he may cause motion when he please. And for time continually existing, it denotes nothing real in it felf existing, but only our manner of conception, of the duration of things, as it is conceived to belong to motion; and so can argue nothing as to the real existence of things from all eternity. But the latter Platonists look upon these as insufficient ways of probation, and therefore argue from Ggg those Sect. 7.

those attributes of God, which they conceive most necessary and agreeable to God's Nature; and by which the world was produced if at all: fo that by the same arguments whereby we prove that the world was made by G. a, they prove it to have been from all eternity. It was well and truly faid of Plato, in his Timaus, that the Goodings of C. was the cause of the production on of the world; from which speech the more modern Plateniffs gather a mecellus of the weeks werens, for from hence they inferr, that fince God was always good, he must always have an object to exercise his a pupon; as the Sun di perfeth has light as foun as he is himfelf. True, were God of the nature of the Sun, it would be so with him; or were the Sun of the Nature of God, it would not be fo with it. But there is this vast difference between them, that though God be effentially and necessarily good, vet the communications of this goodnell are the effect of his will, and not merely of his nature; For, were not the acts of beneficence and good of in God the free acts of his will, man must be made as happy as he was capable of being, not only upon his first existence in the world, but as long as it should continue, by mere necessary of nature, without any intervention of the will or act as of men. And fo there could be no fuch difference as that of good and bad men in the world; for, if the lestings forth of God's goodness to the world be so necessary, all men must become necessarily good, if God's goodness be so great as to be able to make men so; which I suppose will not be questioned. By this then we see that the communications of God's goodness to the world are free, and depend upon the eternal counsels of his will, which is a depth too great for us to approach, or look into; by what necessity then, if God be a free Agent, and of infinite wildem, as well as goodness, must we either aftert the eternity of the world, or fear to deprive God of his essential goodnes? Whereas to make the communications of God's goodness ad extra necessary, and therefore to make the world from eternity, that he might have an object to exercise his goodness on, is, to take as much off from the infinite perfection and self-sufficiency of the divine nature as it would seem to flatter his goodness. For God cannot be himself without his goodness; and if his goodness cannot be without some creature to shew or diplay it upon, God cannot be perfect nor happy, without his creatures, because these

are necessary issues of his goodness; and consequently we make the Being of the creatures necessary to his being God. Which is the highest derogation from the absolute perfection of the Divine Nature. We affert then so much goodness in God, as none can be imagined greater, we affert, that it was the communication of this Divine goodness which gave being to the world; but withall we acknowledge God to be an Agent infinitely wife and free, who dispenseth this goodness of his in such a way and manner as is best pleasing to himself, though ever agreeable to his Nature. As God is infinitely good in himself, so whatever he doth is suitable to this nature of his; but the particular determinations of the acts of God's beneficence belong to the will of God, as he is a most free and independent Agent; so that goodness as it imports the necessary rectitude of the divine nature, implies a perfection inseparable from the true Idea of God; but as it is taken for the expressions of divine bounty to somewhat without, as the object of it, it is not implied in our conception of God, as to his nature, but belongs to the free determinations of his will. We cannot then, neither ought we to determine any thing concerning the particular ways of God's bounty towards the whole Universe, or any part of it, any farther than God himself hath declared it to us. Now we see the world exists, we have cause to adore that goodness of God, which not only gave a being to the Universe, but continually upholds it, and plentifully provides for all the Creatures which he hath made in it. Which the Heathen was fo fenfible of, that the Stoick in Tully taking notice of the abundant provisi- De Nat. Deor. on which is made in the world, not only for man's necessity, l. 2. but for delight and ornament, cries out, ut interdum Pronæa nofra Epicurea esse videatur: God's providence doth abundantly exceed man's necessity. We see then from this Discourse, how unsafe and unsatisfactory (that I may not say bold and presumptuous) those arguments are, which are drawn from a general consideration of the divine nature and goodness, without regard had to the determinations of his will, as to the existence of things in the world. It cannot certainly then be an argument of any great force with any candid Enquirers after truth and reason, which hath been lately pleaded in the behalf of that Pythagorean hypothesis of the præ-existence of souls, viz. That if it be good for men's souls to be at all, the sooner Ggg 2

than

they are, the better; but we are most certain that the Wisdom and Goodneß of God will doe that which is best; and therefore if they can enjoy themselves before they come into these terrestrial bodies (it being better for them to enjoy themselves than not) they must be before they come into these bodies. Wherefore the præ-existence of souls is a necessary result of the Wisdom and Goodness of God, who can no more fail to doe that which is best, than he can to understand it. I now seriously enquire of fuch who love reason above Plato and Pythagoras, whether if the eternity of the world were put into the argument instead of the præ-existence of souls, this argument would not hold as strongly for that, as it doth for pra existence; and if I am bound to believe pra-existence on this ground, I be not likewife bound to believe at least the fouls of men eternal, if not the universe. But how reconcilable the eternity of the world is to the Pythagorick Cabbala of the Creation, I am yet to understand. But if this argument doth not at all inferr the etermily of the world, as we have shewed it doth not, much less doth it præ-existence of souls.

Sect. 8.

We have thus far considered the first Hypothesis, which is repugnant to Moses, concerning the origin of the Universe, which is that which afferts the eternity of the world as it is; we come now to the fecond, which attributes the formation of the world as it is, to God, as the efficient cause; but attributes eternity to the matter out of which the world was framed. I am not ignorant that some who would be taken for the Masters of Reason, are so far from conceiving this bypothesis to be repugnant to the Text of Moses, that they conceive it to be the genuine sence of it, viz. that there was a præ-existent matter, out of which God formed the world. But I would willingly understand how Moles would have expressed that matter it self was created, supposing it had been his intention to have spoken it; for although the word x amay not of it felf imply necessarily the production of things out of nothing, i. e. out of no præ existent matter; yet it is acknowledged by all, that no word used by the fews is more proper to that than is; and P. Fagius cites it from R. Nachmani, that the Hebrew Language hath no other word to signific such a production out of nothing but 27. It is therefore a very weak manner of arguing, that because 272 is sometimes used for no more

Valkelius de vera rel.l.2.c.4.

istent matter; all that can rationally be inferred, is, that from the mere force and importance of that word the contrary cannot be collected: but if other places of Scripture compared, and the evidence of reason, do make it clear that there could be no præ existent matter which was uncreated, then it will neceffarily follow that creation must be taken in its proper sence. And in this sence it is evident, that not only fews and Christians, but even the Heathers themselves understood Moses, as is plain by Galen, where he compares the opinion of Moles, Galen. de usu with that of Epicurus, and ingenuously confesseth that of Mo- part. 1. 11. ses, which attributed the production of things to God, to be far more rational and probable than that of Epicurus, which af-* figned the origin of things to a mere casual concourse of atoms: but withal adds, that he must diffent from both; and sides with Moses as to the origin of such things as depend on generation, but afferts the præ existence of matter, and withall, that God's perver could not extend it self beyond the capacity of the matter which it wrought upon. Atque id est, saith he, in quo ratio nostra ac Platonis, tum aliorum qui apud Græcos de rerum natura recte conscripserunt, à Mose dissidet. How true these words are, will appear afterwards. Chalcidius in his Commentaries on Plato's Timaus, where he speaks of the origin of Jan, which in him is still translated Sylva, and inquires into the different opinions of all Philosophers about it, takes it for granted, that according to Moses, this Jan had its produ- Chalcid in Time. Etion from God. Hebræi sylvam generatam esse consitentur; p. 372. quorum sapientissimus Moyses non humana facundia, sed divina, ut ferunt, inspiratione vegetatus, in eo libro, qui de genitura mundi censetur, ab exordio sic est profatus, juxta interpretationem LXX. prudentium; Initio Deus fecit calum & terram. Terra autem erat invisibilis & incompta. Ut vero ait Aquila; Caput rerum condidit Deus cœlum & terram; terra porro inanis erat & nihil; velut Symmachus; Ab exordio condidit Deus cælum & terram. Terra porro fuit otiosum quid, confusumque, & inordinatum. Sed Origenes asseverat ita sibi ab Hebræis esse persuasum, quod in aliquantum sit à vera proprietate derivata interpretatio. Fuisse enim in exemplari, Terra autem stupida quadam erat admiratione. Omnia tamen bee in unum aunt concurrere, ut & generata sit ea quæ subjetta est univerlo.

later

verso corpori, splva, sermonesque ip os st interpretantur. Where we find by the Testimony of Chalcidian an universal consent as to the production of the universal corporeal matter by God; for that is all which is understood by his term of generata est. But this same Author afterwards tells us, that by Heavens and Earth in the first verse of Genesis, we are not to understand the visible Heavens and Earth: For, saith he, the Heavens, which are called the Firmament, were created after, and on the third day, when the Waters were separated, the dry Land appeared, which was called Earth. Qui tumultuario contenti sunt intellectu, calum boc quod videmus, & terram qua Subvekimur, dici putant; porro qui altius indagant, negant hoc calum ab initio factum, sed secundo die. And therefore by the Heavens he understands Incorpoream Naturam, and by earth, TAN, or the primigenial matter. And this, faith he, appears by the following words, The Earth was invisible and without form; i.e. this corporeal matter, before it was brought into order by the power and wildom of God, remained a rude and indigested lump; and that which is so, might well be called invisible and without form. And therefore it is called inanis and nibil, because of its capacity of receiving all forms, and having none of its own. Symmachus calls it otiofa of indigesta; the former, because of its inability to produce any thing of it felf: the latter, because it wanted a divine power to bring it into due order. That supidity and admiration which Origen attributes to it, he conceives to relate to the Majesty of God, who was the Orderer and Contriver of it, siguidem Opificis & Auctoris sui Majestate capta stupuerit. Thus we see that according to Moses, the first matter of the aworld was produced by God, which is largely manifested by Origen against the Marcionists, a fragment of which is extant in his Philocalia; and by Tertullian against Hermogenes, and ad Hermog. per others, who from the opinion of the pra-existence of matter. are called Materiarii.

Origen. Philoc. cap.24. Tertul.

Sect. 9.

Having thus cleared the sence of Moses, it is far more difficult to find out the true opinions of the ancient Philosophers concerning the production or eternity of corporeal matter, there having been so great diffentions, not only about the thing De Anima pro. its felf, but about the opinions of some about it. For it is creat e Timao. plain by Plutarch's Auxopoia, as well as the discourses of the

to's Timans in favour of the eternity, at least of matter, if not of the world. But although Plato doth affert therein a praexistence of rude matter, before the formation of the world,

yet I fee no reason why he should be otherwise understood than in the same sence that we believe a Chaos, to have gone before the bringing the world into the order it is now in. And in that fence may those places in Plutarch be interpreted, & & in to un col & ή γρέστις, αλλ' οπ το μη καλώς κ, inavώς έχου Φ, and so likewise those following words, & & Feds & TE own to downlow, & TE Juxle To afuger eminour for the meaning may be no more than that Plato conceived that all the productions of the kinds of things, which are in the world, was out of a pra-existent Hyle, the one spiritual and intelligible, out of which he supposed souls to be formed, the other sensible and corporeal, out of which other Beings which were more groß and material, were produced. So Chalcidius tells us that both Pythagoras and Plato looked upon constitutionem sylva to be opus providentia: which I suppose relates not only to the bringing of chalcid in Tim. matter into form, but to the production of matter it self. But p. 377. after this he takes a great deal of pains to fearch out the true meaning of Plato concerning the Origin of Hyle, and mentions Pag. 401. the great dissentions among the Platonists about it, and the obscurity of the Timaus in it. To him therefore I referr the Reader: Who likewise brings in Numenius largely discourfing concerning the opinion of Pythagoras about it, who condemns all those, as not understanding Pythagoras, who attribute to him the production of the indeterminate Hyle: These are his words, Numenius ex Pythagoræ Magisterio Stoicorum Pag. 39 3. boc de initiis dogma refellens, Pythagoræ dogmate, cui concinere dicit dogma Platonicum, ait Pythagoram, Deum quidem singularitatis nominasse (Col. nomine appellasse) sylvam vero duitatis. Quam duitatem indeterminatam quidem, minime genitam, limitatam vero, generatam esse dicere. Hoc est, antequam exornaretur quidem, formamque & ordinem nancisceretur, fine ortu & generatione; exornatam vero atque illustratam, à Digestore Deo esse generatam. Atque ita quia generationis sit fortuna posterior, inornatum illud minime generatum, aquavum Deo, à quo est ordinatum, intelligi debeat. Sed nonnullos Pythagorcos, vim sententia non recte assecutos, putalle,

taffe, dici etiam illam indeterminatam & immensam duitatem, ab una singularitate institutam, recedente à natura sua singularitate, & in duitatis habitum migrante. But however these Pythagoreans might be deceived, who thought the Unity it self became the Deity; yet it is evident by Numenius. that he looked on the undetermined and confused matter to have been co-aval with God himself, and not produced by him. And if Numerius be as much to be credited in this as when he calls Plato, Moses Atticus, then the Creation of universal matter can be no part of Pythagoras his philosophick Cabbala. But whatever were the opinions of Plato and Pythagoras, concerning the first origin of matter, we are certain that the Stoicks generally afferted the improduction of matter, and make that to be as necessary a passive principle for the Being of the world, as God is the active and efficient Caule. So Diogenes Laertius reports of the Stoical principles concerning, the origin of the Universe: Done i autois agais in the onor δύο το ποιδυ κό το πάρον το μέν δυ πάρον εξ) την αποιον κοίαν τίν V. Lipfium in ύλίω· τό ή ποιεν, τ εν αὐτη λόρν τ θεόν. They make truo principles of the Universe, one active, and the other passive; the passive, an essence without quality, called Hyle, or confused matter; the active, the reason which acts in the other, which is God. These two Principles Seneca calls Causa & Materia; esse vero debet, saith he, aliquid unde fiat; deinde, à quo fiat, boc causa est, illud materia. Although Seneca seems to make Prafat.ad Nat. a query of it elsewhere; quantum Deus possit? materiam ipse sibi fermet, an data utatur? But Zeno is express in Stobæus. Ούσαν είναι τω τη όνθων πάνθων σορότην ύλλω, ταύτην ή πάσαν άίδιov, 878 Their nyvaneviw 875 Endino. The first effence of all is matter, which is eternal, and not capable of accession, or diminution.

Physiol. Sto. l. I. C. 4.

Epist. 65.

V. Zenon.

Quaft. Eelog. Phyfic.

In Tim. p. 388. To the same purpose Chalcidius speaks, Stoici ortum (ylvæ rejiciunt, quin potius ipsam & Deum, duo totius rei sumunt initia; Deum, ut opificem; Sylvam, ut quæ operationi subjiciatur. Una quidem effentia præditos facientem, & quod fit ac patitur, id corpus elle; diver a vero virtute; quia faciat, De-

um; quia fiat, Sylvam esse.

Having now found out the certain Affertors among the Hea-Sect. 10. then Philosophers of the eternity and improduction of matter as the pullive principle of things, we come to examine the reason of this Hypothesis, and whether there were foundation enough for

for this matter to subsist upon from all eternity? It might be sufficient prejudice against this opinion, that it was built on the same insirm conclusions which that of the eternity of the whole world was, viz. that Maxim which Lipsus attributes to Democritus, but was embraced by all those Philosophers who denied production of matter, unsie in out of vivestal, Physiol. Stoic unsie is to un or opinional, that nothing could be produced out l. 2. c. 2. of nothing, nor could return into nothing; which as we have already said, was only taken up from the cstablished order of the Universe, and the manner of production of material Beings. But this is not all we have to charge this Hypothesis

with; for,

1. It is repugnant to the Natural Notion of a Deity, which must imply in it an omnipotent power; For otherwise we degrade him to the imbecillity of finite creatures, if he cannot produce any thing which doth not imply a contradiction: but what contradiction is there in this, that God should give a Being to that which had none before? For that is all we understand by Creation, viz. the producing of something out of nothing, or which had nothing out of which it was produced. Now what repugnancy is there to any free principle of reason, that a power infinite should raise an Insect into Being without any passive principle out of which it was caused; and if an Infinite power can do that, it may as well produce the world out of nothing, else the power would not be Infinite; for it would have its bounds fet, that thus far it could go and no further. Now if fuch a power in God implies no contradiction it its felf, I say, the afferting the necessary existence of matter implies a contradiction to this power. For, I. A power to produce something out of nothing would be to no purpose, if a passive principle or præ-existent matter be necessary to the production of any thing; and so that Being which hath a power to produce. something out of nothing, hath only a power to produce something out of something, which is a plain contradiction. 2 If God hath a power to produce something out of nothing, either this power doth extend to the production of this matter, or not; if it doth, then it depends on him; if not, his power is not infinite, and so the same power is infinite and not infinite; which is another contradiction. So that it is plainly repugnant to the notion of a God to affert the necessary and eternal existence of matter. Hhh 2. If

Advers. Her-

mog. c. 4.

2. If matter be unproduced, then necessary existence must belong to it as well as to God; and if necessary existence belongs to matter, infinite power must belong to it too; For whatever necessarily exists is self-originated; whatever is self-originated. could not by any cause whatsoever be bindered from Being; what cannot by any cause be hindered from Being, hath infinite power; what hath infinite power, may produce any thing, and is God, and so matter cannot be a mere passive principle, but must be an active, and so must be God himself. or else there must be more Gods than one. To an argument fomething of this nature Hermogenes in Tertullian replies, that matter would not lose the Name or Nature of matter, because of its Co-eternity with God, neither could it be God merely on that account, unless it had other things that were agreeable to the Nature of God as well as that. But I have already shewed that necessary existence implies other perfections going along with it: which is likewife thus proved by Tertullian in answer to Hermogenes; the reason of the imperfections which are to be feen in any creatures, is from hence, that they derive their Beings from a higher cause, who creates them in what order he pleases; but that which hath its original from its felf, must on that account want those imperfections which other creatures in the World have; and therefore if necessary existence be of the Nature of matter. all other perfections must belong to it too: and so there can be no superiority and inferiority between God and matter, because on both sides there will be necessary existence. Divinitas gradum non habet, utpote unica: and so the eternal existence of matter, is repugnant to the unity of God.

Cap. 7.

3. It is repugnant to the Independency of God: for it makes God subject to matter, and not matter to God. For if God cannot produce any thing without praexistent matter, the matter is necessary to his action, and so God must depend on that which he can do nothing without; and so God's using matter, is as Tertullian speaks, ex necessitate mediscritatis sua, to help him in the production of things. Nemo non subjictur ei cujus eget ut possit uti, as he goes on. Thus matter at last is crept above the Deity, that God can do nothing without its aid and concurrence; and so as Tertullian sharply says, God is beholding to matter for every Being known to the world; grande bene-

Cap. 8.

ficinzo

ficium Deo contulit ut haberet hodie per quam Deus cognosceretur, & omnipotens vocaretur, nist quod jam non omnipotens, si non & hoc potens ex nihilo omnia proferre. Thus we see how irreconcilable this Hypothesis is with these Attributes of God.

4. It is repugnant to the immensity of God. For either God did exist separate from this eternal matter, or was conjoyned with it; if conjoyned with it, then both made but one Being, as Maximus, or Origen argues; if separate from it, then orig. Philoc. there must be something between them, and so there will be c. 24. three real improduced things. If it be answered that they are neither conjoyned nor separate, but God is in matter as in his proper place, as the Stoicks afferted, it is eafily replyed, that either then he is in a part of matter, or the whole matter; if in a part only, he cannot be immense; if in the whole as his adaquate place, how could he then ever frame the World? For either he must then recede from that part in which he was, and contract himself into a narrower compass that he might fashion that part of the World which he was about, or else he might likewise frame part of bimself with that part of the World which he was then framing of, which confequence is unavoidable on the Storcal Hypothesis of God's being corporeal and confined to the World as his proper place. And so much for this second Hypothesis concerning the Origin of the Universe, which supposeth the eternity of matter as co-existing with God.

I come now to that which makes most noise in the World, Sect. 11. which is the Atomical or Epicurean Hypothesis, but will appear to be as irrational as either of the foregoing, as far as-it concerns the giving an account of the Origin of the Universe. For otherwise supposing a Deity which produced the world and put it into the order it is now in, and fupremely governs all things in the world, that many of the Phanomena of the Univer/e, are far more intelligibly explained by matter and motion than by substantial forms, and real qualities, few free and unprejudiced minds do now scruple. But because these little particles of matter may give a tolerable account of many appearances of nature, that therefore there should be nothing else but matter and motion in the World, and that the Origin of the Universe should be from no wiser principle than the casual concourse of these Atoms, is one of the evidences of the

Hhh 2

proneness

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proneness of mens minds to be intoxicated with those opinions they are once in love with. When they are not content to allow an Hypothesis its due place and subserviency to God, and providence, but think these Atoms have no force at all in them unless they can extrude a Deity quite out of the World. For it is most evident that it was not so much the truth as the serviceableness of this Hypothesis, which hath given it entertainment among men of Atheistical spirits. Epicurus himself in his Epistle to Pythocles urgeth that as a considerable circumstance in his opinion that he brought no God down upon the stage to put things in order, wind beside quotis weds tall mandally megarayida, which his Paraphrast Lucretius hath thus rendred.

Apud. Diog. Laert. l. 10. Lucret. de Nat. l. 5.

Nequaquam nobis divinitus esse paratam Naturam rerum.

If this opinion then be true, the history of the creation quite falls to the ground, on which account we are obliged more particularly to consider the reason of it. The Hypothesis then of Epicurus is, that before the world was brought into that form and order it is now in, there was an infinite empty space in which were an innumerable company of solid particles or Atoms of different sizes and shapes, which by their weight were in continual motion, and that by the various occursions of these, all the bodies of the Universe were framed into that order they now are in. Which is fully expressed by Dionysius in Eusebius, and very agreeably to the sence of Epicurus in his Epistles to Herodotus and Pythocles, and to what Plutarch reports of the sence of Epicurus, though he names him not (if at least that book be his which Muretus denies) the words of Dionysius are these concerning the Epicureans, οί μεν β απίμες σερσειπόν ες άφθαςτά τινα κή σμικρότατα σώματα, πλήθος ανάριθμα, καί τι χωςίον κενον, μέχεθος απερίθεισον σερβαλλόμθροι, ταύτας δή φασι τας απόμες ώς έτυ χεν ον τω κενώ φερομβάς, αυτομάτως τε συμπιπθέσας άλληλαις δια ρύμην άτακζου κὸ συμπλεκριβρας δια το πολύχημον αλλήλων δπλαμβάνεδαι, κ) επω τόντε κόσμον, κ) τὰ ἐν ἀυτῶ, μάλλον ή κόσμες antigus antolener. So that according to this opinion, all the account we have of the Origin of the world, is from this general Rendezvouz of Atoms in this infinite space, in which after many encounters and facings about, they fell into their feveral troops, and made up that ordered Battalia which now

Prap. Evang. l. 14. c. 22. p. 421. R. St.

De Placitis
Phil. l. 1. c. 4.
Annot in Senec.
de provid.

Chap. 2. The Divine Authority of the Scriptures afferted.

42 I

the world is the Scheme of. It was not imprudently done of Epicurus to make the worlds infinite, as well as his pace and Atoms; for by the same reason that his Atoms would make one world, they might make a thousand; and who would spare for worlds, when he might make them so easily? Lucretius gives us in so exact an account of the several courses the Atoms took up in disposing themselves into bodies, as though he had been Muster-Master-General at the great Rendezvouz; for thus he speaks of his Atoms.

De Nat. rer.T.I.

Quæ quia multimodis, multis mutata per omne Ex Infinito vexantur percita plagis, Omne genus motus & cætus experiundo, Tandem deveniunt in taleis disposituras, Qualibus bæc rebus consistit summa creata.

And more particularly afterwards;

Sed quia multa modis multis primordia rerum Ex Infinito jam tempore percita plagis, Ponderibusque suis consuerunt concita ferri, Omnimodisque coire, atque omnia pertentare, Quæcunque inter se possunt congressa creare; Ut non sit mirum, si in taleis disposituras Deciderunt quoque, & in taleis venere meatus,

Qualibus bæc rerum genitum nunc summa novando.

Thus we see the substance of the Epicurean Hypothelis, that

there was an Infinite number of Atoms, which by their frequent occursions did at last meet with those of the same nature with them, and these being conjoyned together made up those bodies which we see; so that all the account we are able to give according to this Hypothesis of all the Phanomena of the Universe, is from the fortuitous concourse of the Atoms in the first forming of the world, and the different contexture of them in bodies. And this was delivered by the ancient Epicureans not with any doubt or Hesitation, but with the greatest confidence imaginable. So Tully observes of Velleius the Epicu- De Nat, Dear, rean, beginning his discourse, sidenter sane ut solent isti nihil tam 1. 1. verens quam ne dubitare de aliqua re videretur ; tanquam modo ex Deorum concilio, & ex Epicuri intermundiis descendisset :

Confidence was the peculiar genius of that feet, which we shall see in them to be accompanied with very little reason.

Lib. 5.

Sect. 12.

For those two things which make any principles in Philosophy to be rejected, this Atomical Hypothesis is unavoidably charged with; and those are, If the principles be taken up without sufficient ground in reason for them; and if they cannot give any sufficient account of the Phænomena of the world. I shall therefore make it appear, that this Hypothesis, as to the Origin of the Universe, is first, merely precarious, and built on no sufficient grounds of reason. Secondly, That it cannot give any

1. That it is a precarious Hypothesis, and hath no evidence of reason on which it should be taken up; and that will be proved by two things.

1. It is such an Hypothesis as the Epicureans themselves could have no certainty of according to their own principles.

2. That the main principles of the Hypothesis it self are repugnant to those Catholick Laws of nature which

are observed in the Universe.

1. The Epicureans according to their own principles could have no certainty of the truth of the Hypothesis. And that, 1. Because they could have no certain evidence of its truth. 2. Be-

cause their way of proving it was insufficient.

Satisfactory account of the Origin of things.

1. That they could have no certain evidence of the truth of it, I prove from those criteria, which Epicurus lays down as the only certain rules of judging the truth of things by; and those were Sense, Anticipation and Passion. Let sense be never so infallible a rule of judgment, yet it is impossible there should be any evidence to sense of the truth of this Hypothesis: and let him extend his to mesophiculuor as long as he please, which was his great help for correcting the errors of sense, viz. as it was in the Roman Court when the cale was not clear, ampliandum est; So Epicurus would have the object represented every way it could be before he past his judgment; vet this prudent caution would do him no good for this Hypothefis, unless he were so wife as to stay till this world were crumbled into Atoms again, that by that he might judge of the Origin of it. There is but one way left to find out the truth of things inevident to sense, (as by Epicurus his own confession all these Atoms are, which are now the component particles of bodies; much more those which by their fortuitous concourse gave Being to the world) and that is, if formething evident to fense doth apparently prove it, which is his

his way of proving a Vacuity in nature and motion; but tho' that be easily answered by principles different from those of Epicurus, and more rational; yet that very way of probation fails him in this present Hypothesis. For what is there evident to fense which proves a fortuitous concourse of Atoms for the production of things ? nay if we grant him that the composition of bodies is nothing else but the contexture of these insensible particles, yet this is far from being an evidence to fense, that these particles without any wife and directing providence should make up fuch bodies as we fee in the world. And here when we speak of the evidence of sense, we may well ask as the Stoick in Tully doth, whether ever Epicurus found a Poem made by the casual throwing of letters together; and if a concourse of Atoms did produce the world, cur porticum, cur De Nat. Deor: templum, cur domum, cur urbem non potest? why did it never 1. 2. produce a cloyster, a temple, a bouse, a city, which are far easier things than the world ? I know Epicurus will foon reply, that things are otherwise in the world now than when it was first produced; I grant it, and from thence prove, that because no fuch thing ever bappens in the world now, as a merely casual concourse of Atoms to produce any things, Epicurus could have no evidence from sense at all to find out the truth of his Hypothesis by. And as little relief can he find from his fecond Criterium, viz. Anticipation; for by his own acknowledgment, all Anticipation depends on the senses, and men have it only one of these four ways. I. By incursion, as the v. Gassendum species of a man is preserved by the sight of him. 2. By de Logica Epiproportion, as we can enlarge or contract that species of a curi. Op. To. 1. man either into a Gyant or Pigmy. 3. By similitude, as we c. 7. Can. 7. may fansie the image of a City by resemblance to one which we have feen. 4. By composition, whereby we may joyn different images together, as of a horse and man to make a Centaure. Now though it be very questionable how some of these ways belong to a Criterium of truth, yet none of them, reach our case; for there can be no Incursion of insensible particles as fuch upon our fenses; we may indeed by proportion imagine the parvitude of them: but what is this to the proving the truth of the Hypothesis? Similitude can do no good, unless Epicurus had ever seen a world made so; the only relief must be from composition, and that will prove the Origin:

Origin of the world by Atoms to be as true as that there are Centaures in the world, which we verily believe. These are the only Criteria which Epicurus would judge of the truth of natural things by (for the third, Passion relates wholly to things Moral and not Physical) and now let any one judge, whether the Hypothesis of the Origin of the Universe by Atoms can ever be proved true, either by the judgment of sense, or by Anticipation.

Sect. 13.

The way they had to prove this Hypothesis was insufficient; and that was by proving that the bodies of the world are compounded of such insensible particles; Now, granting the thing, I deny the consequence; for what though the composition of bodies be from the contexture of Atoms, doth it therefore follow, that these particles did casually produce these bodies? nay doth it at all follow, that because bodies upon their resolution do fall into insensible particles of different size. figure and motion, therefore these particles must be præ-existent to all bodies in the world? For it is plain, that there is now an Universal lump of matter out of which these insensible particles arise, and whither they return on the dissolution of bodies; and all these various corpuscles may be of the same uniform substance only with the alteration of size, shape and motion; but what then? doth this prove, that because particular bodies do now emerge out of the various configuration and motion of insensible particles of that matter which exists in the world, that therefore this whole matter was produced by the casual occursions of these Atoms? It will ask more time and pains than is usually taken by the Philosophers either ancient or modern, to prove that those things whatsoever they are, whether elements or particles out of which bodies are supposed to be compounded, do exist separately from fuch compounded bodies, and antecedently to them We find no Aristotelian elements pure in the world, nor any particles of matter destitute of such a size, figure and motion as doth make some body or other. From whence then can we inferr either the existence of Aristotle's materia prima, without quiddity, quantity, or quality, or the Epicurean Atoms without fuch a contexture as makes up some bodies in the world? Our profound Naturalist Dr. Harvey, after his most accurate fearch into the natures and Generation of things, delivers

delivers this as his experience and judgment concerning the commonly reputed elements or principles of bodies. For speaking of the different opinions of Empedocles, and Hippocrates, and Democritus, and Epicurus, concerning the composition of bodies, he adds, Ego vero neque in animalium productione, nec De Generat. omnino in ulla corporum similarium generatione, (sive ea parti- Anim. Exercit. um animalium, sive plantarum, lapidum, mineralium, &c. fuerit) vel congregationem ejusmodi, vel miscibilia diversa in generationis opere unienda præ-existere, observare unquam potui. And after explaining the way which he conceived most rational and consonant to experience in the generation of things, he concludes his discourse with these words; Idengue in omni generatione fieri crediderim; adeo ut corpora similaria mista, elementa sua tempore priora non babeant, sed illa potius elementis suis prius existant (nempe Empedoclis atque Aristotelis igne, aqua, aere, terra, vel Chymicorum sale, sulphure, & Mercurio, aut Democriti atomis) utpote natura quoque ipsis perfectiora. Sunt, inquam, mista & composita, etiam tempore priora elementis quibuslibet sic dictis, in que illa corrumpuntur & desinunt; dissolvuntur, scilicet, in ista ratione potius quam re ipsa & actu. Elementa itaque quæ dicuntur, non sunt priora istis rebus quæ generantur aut orientur; sed posteriora potius, & reliquiæ magis quam principia. Neque Aristoteles ipsemet aut alius quispiam unquam demonstravit, elementa in reruna natura separatim existere, aut principia esse corporum similarium. If then none of these things which bodies are resolved into, and are supposed to be compounded of, either have been or can be proved to exist feparate from and antecedent to those bodies which they compound, what then becomes of all our company of Atoms which are supposed by their concourse in an infinite space to be the origin of the world? I know not where to find them, unless dancing with the School-men's Chimera's in a vacuum, or in a space as empty as the infinite one, viz. some Epicurean's brains. Neither therein will they be much unlike their great master Epicurus, if we believe the character which the Stoick in Tully gives of him, who faith he was bomo fine arte, fine literis, in- De Nat. Debr. Jultans in omnes, sine acumine ullo, sine auctoritate, sine lepore. l. 2. But allowing the Stoick some of that passion, (which he dis-

claimed so much) in these words; yet we may rather believe

Iii

S38t. 14.

ments, that they were none of them handsom or becoming a De Divinat I. 1. man. At ille guid fentit ? faith he of Epicurus; and soon re-De Finibus, l. 1. plies, sentit autem nibil unquam elegans, nibil decorum; and in another place speaking of his Morals, he faith, nibil generolum (apit atque magnificum, there was nothing noble and venerous in him. Which Cenfure of Epicurus, all the pains that P. Gassendus hath taken in the vindication of the life and opimions of Epicurus, hath not been able to wipe off. For although we should yield what that learned man so much contends for, that all the calumnies which were cast on Epicurus arise from the antipathy between Zeno and the following Stoicks and the School of Epicurus; yet all this will not make Epicurus to have been comparable with some other Philosophers for parts and judgment, whose Principles have somewhat more generous and venerable in them, than the Morals of Epicurus had, taking them in their more refined fence.

But it is not the Morality of Epicurus which we now enquire after; our business is to see how well he acquits himself in rendring an account of the origin of the Universe without a Deity. And so we come to consider the Hypothesis it self, whether it be rational or no, or consistent with the Catholick Laws of nature which appear in the world. Two things I shall here enquire into, which are the main principles of Epicurus, viz the motion of these Atoms in the infinite space, and the manner of the concretion of bodies by the concourse of these

Atoms.

n. I begin with their motion; which Epicurus attributes to his Atoms without any besitation, and yet never undertakes to give an account of the origin of that motion; which argues his whole Hypothesis to be extreamly precarious. The thing then, (which he must assume as his main principle, without which all his other doe nothing) is, That motion doth inseparably belong to the least Atom or insensible particle; for without this there cannot be imagined any concourse of Atoms at all, much less any such contexture of bodies out of them. But for one to say that Atoms move, because it is their nature to move, and give no other account of it, is so precarious, that it will never give the least satisfaction to an inquisitive mind. And it will be the least of all pardonable in the Exploders of substantial forms and occult qualities, when the origin of the

whole world is resolved into an occult quality which gives motion to Atoms. And herein the Atomifts out doe the most credulous Peripateticks, seeing they lay the prime foundation of the world and of their own philosophy together in a thing they can give no rational account of at all, which is, the motion of Atoms in an infinite vacuity. If it be replied, which is all Epicurus hath to say, that the motion of Atoms depends upon their gravity; the question returns upon him with the same violence, how comes this gravity to belong to these Atoms in such an empty space, where there can be no impulsion from other bodies, no attraction from any magnetick particles which are supposed to be the causes of the descent of heavy bodies? Nay, Epicurus himself takes away any center of that motion of Atoms; and yet attributes a necessary descent to his Atoms by virtue of their gravity; and if a Philosopher may beg such things as these are, fo repugnant to the Phanomena of nature, without af- Physic. S. 1. 1.3. figning any other reason for them, but that it is their nature, De apparent. let us never venture Philosophizing more, but fit down in that magnitud. Solis contented piece of ignorance which attributes the causes of eve- humilis & subry thing unto specifick forms and occult qualities. For this is limis, ep. 4. s.3. fo shamefull a piece of beggery, that P. Gassendus doth more sic. s. 1.15.c.2. than once disclaim it, and in his discourse of motion doth V. ep. de motu prove an impossibility of motion in an infinite empty space. Might impresso à monot Epicurus then have faved his credit better by fitting down tore translato. with the opinions of his fore-fathers, than thus to go a begging To. 3. op. for fuch Hypotheses, which none, who are not resolved to be ignorant, will be ready to grant him?

But yet this is not all, but according to this fundamental Sect. 15. principle of Epicurus, viz. That there is a principle of motion in every infensible particle of matter, he plainly overthrows another principle of his, which is, the folidity and different magnitude of these Atoms. These particles are supposed so solid, that Diony sius in Eusebius tells us the account given why they are cal- Prep. Evangel. led a τομοι was, sa τω αλυίου σερβότη a, because of their indisso- l. 14. c. 22. luble firmnes; and the different sizes of these Atoms is so necessary a principle, that from thence they undertake to resolve many phanomena of the Universe: let us now see how consistent these things are with the inseparable property of motion belonging to Atoms: For if there be particles of such different fizes, then it is plain that there are some particles which may

Iii 2

not only be conceived to be bigger than others, but are really fo; and fo there must be more parts of matter imagined in this bigger particle than in another less; and if there be more parts, these parts may be conceived separate from each other. that this particle may be equal to the other; now then, I demand, if motion doth inseparably belong to the least particle of matter, how comes one to be bigger than the other? for herein we see that every particle is not in distinct motion; for there cannot but be more imaginable particles in an Atom of a bigger fize than in a less; and if so, there must be some union of those imaginable particles in that bigger Atom; and how could fuch an union be without rest, and what rest could there be if motion doth inseparably belong to every particle of matter? And so it must be in all those Atoms which are supposed to have angles and books, in order to their better catching hold of each other, for the composition of bodies; how come these books and angles to be annexed to this Atom? for an Atom may be without them; whence comes this union, if such a princitle of motion be in each particle? if it be answered, that motion did belong to all these particles, but by degrees the lesser. particles bitting together made up these angled and booked particles; I foon reply, that the difficulty returns more frongly; for if these angled and booked particles be supposed necessary to the contexture and union of bodies; how came those least imaginable particles ever to unite without such books and angles? And so the question will return in infinitum. If then the solidity and indivisibility of these angled Atoms, doth depend on the union and rest of those lesser imaginable particles joyned together, then it is evident that motion is no inseparable property of all these particles, but some are capable of union, in order to the making of fuch books and angles, which are necessary for the contexture of bodies; and where there is union and folidity, there is rest, which is at least accompanied with it, if it be not one of the great causes of it. And without which the Atomists, of all other Philosophers, will be least able to give an account of firmness in bodies when they make bodies to confift of an aggregation of particles, by which it will be very hard finding a fufficient account of the difference between fluid and firm bodies, unless it be from the quicker motion and agitation of the particles of fluid bodies, and the

V. Descartes, princip. p. 2. art. 54,55,56. rest of the small and contiguous parts that make up the firm body, according to that Catholick Law of nature, whereby things continue in the state they are in till some stronger force puts them out of it. The only thing which the Epicurean Atomists have left to give any account of the solidity of particles of fuch different fizes, is, the want of vacuity; for, fay they, the ground of divilibility of bodies is the interspersion of a disseminated vacuum; now where there is no vacuity, though the particles be of different size, yet they may be solid and indivi-sible. But this is taken off by the instance produced against History of other persons by that ingenious and honourable Person Mr. Boyle Fluid. and in his Physiological Essays, which is to this purpose, Suppose Firm. p. 202. two of these presumed indivisible particles, both smooth and of a cubical figure, should happen to lie upon one another, and a third should chance to be fitly placed upon the upper of the two; what (hould hinder but that this Aggregate may by the violent knock of some other corpuscles be broken in the midst of the whole concretion, and consequently in the middlemost body? For suppose them as folid as may be, yet since corpuscles as hard as they, can be made very violently to knock against them, why may not those grate or break the middlemost corpuscle, or any of the others? And if there be a possibility of breaking off these cubical particles in the middle, then mere want of vacuity is no sufficient account of their being indivisible. By this we see how far the Atomists are from giving any rational account of the origin of the motion of the Atoms themselves without a Deity.

2. Supposing this motion to be granted them, yet they cannot give any satisfactory account of the manner of concretion of bodies by the casual occursions of these Atoms moving in an infinite empty space. Which appears from those gross and extravagant suppositions of Epicurus, in order to the making these Atoms of his so bit together that they make up any bodies by their contexture.

1. He supposeth as it were two regions, a superiour and inferiour in an infinite empty space, which hath no center at all in it, nor any body, from which to measure those respects of above and below, as appears by his Epistle to Herodotus, wherein he faith, these terms of avo and xaro, or upwards and downwards, must be conceived without any bounds or limits at all:

Sect. 16.

.c. 7.

So that though we conceive something superiour, we must imagine nothing supreme, and so on the contrary. Whereby it is Physic. f.1. 1.3. evident, as Gassendus confesseth, that Epicurus thought the Surface of the Earth to be a plain, and this plain to be continued up in a level superficies to the heavens, and so to all that immense space of the Universe. So that all those beavy bodies which should fall downwards in any parts of the widest distance on the earth, as in Europe, Asia, and Africa, would never meet (if they continued their motion) in the center of the earth, but would continue their motion still in a parallel line: and so he imagined that which is said to be above as to us, was really the upper part of the world, and so the descent of his Atoms, must necessarily be downwards towards the earth, according to the weight of them. And was not this a worthy mathematical supposition, for one who would undertake to give an account of the origin of the Universe without a Deity?

> This motion of descent by reason of the gravity of Atoms would not serve his turn; for if the Atoms moved downwards thus in a parallel line, how was it possible for them ever to meet for the contexture of bodies? Now for this purpose he invented a motion of declination; for finding the motion ad lineam, or ad perpendiculum as some call it, could not possibly produce those varieties of bodies which are in the Universe, he supposed therefore the descent not to be in a perpendicular right line, but to decline a little, that so several particles in their descent might make some occursions one upon another. And this Epicurus added to Democritus; but therein as Tully observes, was very unhappy, that where he adds to Democritus, ea quæ corrigere vult, mihi quidem depravare videatur; that he marr'd what Democritus had faid, by men-

given by Lucretius,

De rerum nat. 1. 2.

De Fin. l. I.

Quod nisi declinare solerent, omnia deorsum Imbris uti guttæ caderent per Inane profundum; Nec foret offensus natus, neque plaga creata Principiis, ita nil unquam natura creasset.

ding of it. The reason of which motion of declination is thus

It was obvious to object, That, according to the Principles of Epicurus, there could have been no concourse at all of Atoms in

an infinite space, on the two grounds he went on, which were the natural descent of Atoms, and the agui velocity of the motion of all Atoms of what fize so ever, which he likewise afferted (although one would think, if gravity were the cause of motion, then the more gravity, the swifter the motion would be) from hence, I say, it were not easie to conceive how the Atoms should embrace each other in a parallel line, if they fell down, as Lucretius expresseth it, like drops of rain; and therefore they saw a necessity to make their motion decline a little, that so they might just le and hit one upon another. But this oblique motion of the Atoms, though it be the only refuge left to (alve the origin of things by a concourse of Atoms, is yet as precarious and without reason as any other supposition of theirs whatsoever. Tully chargeth this motion of declination with De Fin. bon. 6. two great faults, futility, and inefficacy, quæ cum res tota mal. lib. 1. fieta sit pueriliter, tum ne efficit quidem quod vult. It is a childish fancy and to no purpose: For, first, It is afferted without any reason at all given for it, which is unworthy a Philosopher; neither is to any purpose; for if all Atoms, saith he, decline in their motion, then none of them will flick together; if some decline, and others do not, this is as precarious as any thing can be imagined, to assign a diversity of motion in indivisible particles, which yet have all the same velocity of motion; and, as Tully faith, Hoc erit quasi provincias atomis dare, quæ recte, quæ oblique ferantur; as though Epicurus were the General at this Rendezvouz of Atoms, who stands ready to appoint every one his task and motion. This Plutarch tells us was the great charge against Epicurus, ws aval nov Exercipal silven on to un olf be be- De Anima procause he introduced such a motion of declination out of nothing, up. creat. è Timao. on no presence of reason. And Turnebus tells us that the ground Turnebus in Ci-why they defired so small a declination, was, because they were conscious to themselves, that it was founded upon no ground of. reason; Et Epicurei sibi conscii culpæ, timide eam ponebant, & minimam sibi postulabant. To which purpose Turnebus cites those Verses of Lucretius,

Lib. 2.

Quare etiam atque etiam paulum inclinare necesse est Corpora, nec plusquam minimum, ne fingere motus Obliquos videamur, & id res vera refutet. Namque boc in promptu manifestumque esse videmus,

Pondera.

Pondera quantum in se est, non posse obliqua meare E supero cum præcipitant, quod cernere posses. Sed nibil omnino recta regione viai Declinare quis est qui possit cernere sese?

But this argument of Lucretius will hold if at all, further than this little declination (for it is no more they defire than as little as may be imagined, quo nihil possit fieri minus, as Tully expresseth it) but if they may decline a little, why not a great deal more? nay, it is impossible to conceive, but a little oblique motion at first will in an infinite space grow to be very oblique; for there is nothing to hinder the motion which way it bends: now if there be never so little motion of declination, the Atom will be inclined that way; and what then should binder, but that the obliquity in a motion through a great pace should at last come to be very great; there being no center at all to guide the motion towards, and the gravity not hindring this little declination? Therefore Tully asks that question, Cur declinet uno minimo, non declinet duobus aut tribus? Why only it declines one minim, and not two or three; for, faith he, it is no impulsion from any other Atom which makes it decline that one minim; neither is there any impediment in the space to binder it from declining more; so that, as he well faith, optare boc quidem est, non disputare, this is to beg Hypotheses, and not to prove them, which is the thing we have proved Epicurus to doe. Which was the first thing premised, viz. that this Hypothesis of Epicurus was very precarious, and is built on no foundation of reason.

Sect. 17.

Lib. de Fato.

2. It is unsatisfactory and insufficient, as well as precarious; for should we grant his two main principles, Atoms, and his Insuite empty space; yet we deny that ever his Atoms with all their occursions would ever produce those things which are in the Universe. To run through the noted Phanomena of the Universe, and to shew how insufficient an account the Epicureans are able to give of them, from a fortuitous concourse of Atoms, is a task too large to be here undertaken. There are only three things which I shall rather suggest, than insist upon, to see what miserable shifts the Epicureans are driven to for the salving of them, and shall then leave it with the Reader to judge, what unmeasurable considence it is in any to reject the Creation of the World

World for the fake of the Epicurean Hypothesis; and whether it be not the height of credulity, as well as infidelity, to believe the world ever to have been made by a fortuitous concourse of Atoms.

1. The great variety of appearances in nature, which are attributed to particles of the same nature, only with the alteration of fize, flape and motion. That some things in the world, should have no other reason given of them, may not only be tolerable, but rational, as in the objects and operations on the organs of sense, those affections which are mistaken for real qualities, &c. But that all those effects which are seen in nature, should have no other cause but the different configuration and motion of Atoms, is the height of folly as well as impiety. To imagine that the particles of matter, as they are in men, should be capable of sensation, memory, intellection, volition, &c. merely because of a different shape, size and motion from what they have in a piece of wood, is a riddle that requires a new configuration of Atoms in us to make us understand. May it not be hoped, that at least one time or other by this casual concourse of Atoms, the particles may light to be of such a nature in stones, as to make them sly; in plants, to make them all fensitive; and in beasts to make them reason and discourse? What may hinder such a configuration or motion of particles, if all these effects are to be imputed to no higher principle? We see in other bodies what different appearances are caused by a sudden alteration of the particles of the matter of which they are compounded; why may it not fall out so in the things mentioned? Neither can this be unreasonable to demand. 1. Because the motion of these particles of matter is casual still according to them; and who knows what chance may do? for the seminal principles them-(elves are, I suppose, according to them of the same uniform matter with the rest of the world, and so are liable to different motion and configuration. 2. Because all particles of matter are supposed to be in continual motion, because of that differentiated Vacuity which is presumed to be in the world, and because a Coacervate Vacuity is not only afferted as possible, but as probably existent: I assume only then (that which is infifted on as probable) viz. that that space which lies between our Atmosphere and the Stars is empty of any Kkk other

other thing, but only the rays of the Stars which pass through it; I then supposing it a vacuity, whether would not the particles of those bodies which lie contiguous to that pace prefently dislodge from the bodies wherein they are, and begin a new Rendezvouz of Atoms, there? for all Atoms are supposed to be in perpetual motion; and the cause assigned, why in folid bodies they do not fly away, is because of the repercussion of other Atoms, that when they once begin to fir, they receive such knocks as make them quiet in their places. Now this cannot hold in the bodies contiguous to this space; for both those bodies are more fluid, and so there is no such knocking of particles to keep them at rest; but which is more, those which are contiguous have nothing at all to hinder them from motion, and so those particles will necessarily remove into that empty space where there is no impediment of their motion. and so the next Atoms to those must remove, because that pace wherein the other were is made empty by their removal; and fo the next, and fo on, till not only the air, but the whole mass of the earth will on supposition of such a vacuity be disfolved into its first particles, which will all mutiny in the several bodies wherein they are, and never rest till they come to that empty space, where they may again Rendezvouz to-So dangerous is the news of Liberty, or of an empty space to these Democratical particles of the Universe. Neither can I see how a disseminated vacuity can salve the difficulty; for those particles of the most folia bodies, being in continual motion, and the ground of their union being repercussion, it thence follows that towards that part where the disseminated vacuum is, the particles meeting with no such strokes may fairly take their leaves of the bodies they are in. and so one succeed in the place of another, till the configuration of the whole be altered, and consequently different appearances and effects may be caused in the same bodies, though it refults from seminal principles. So that according to the Atomical principles, no rational account can be given of those effects which are seen in nature. This Dionysius in Eusebius urgeth against the Atomists, that from the same principles without evident reason given for it, they make of the same uniform matter some things conspicuous to sense, others not, some short-lived, others extreamly long-lived. That I reonov

Prap. Evang. 1. 14. c. 24.

Chap.2. The Divine Authority of the Scriptures afferted. นเลื่ะ ห้อทร พ่า รี ลับรัตร ล์ สเขอนึง ชื่อเลร, พ่า รี ลับรัตร ล้องลียระ อุบัฮะผร, สมไม่ ทั้ง मार्किक, केंड कवन, में मी क्षायां का, न्ये भी हैन विलेख में बेमी हुआत में αἰώνια, ώς αὐτὸι φήσαιεν αν, σώματα, η μακραίωνά γε κτ τ కτως ονομάσαντα, φαινόμθρά τε κ, άφανη; What ground can there be afsigned of so vast a difference between things if they all be of the same nature, and differ only in size and shape? saith that excellent person, who there with a great deal of eloquence lays open the folly of the Atomical Philosophy, Baumash ye of andμων, ή δημοκρατία δεξικμίνων τε αλλήλας τη φίλων κ) σειπλεκομένων είς μίαν τε κατασκίωδυ συνοικίαν επειχομένων. It is a rare Democraty of Atoms, faith he, where the friendly Atoms meet and embrace each other, and from thence forward live in the closest society together.

2. Not only the variety, but the exact order and beauty of the world is a thing unaccountable by the Atomical hypothefis. Were the whole world still a Hestod's Chaos (from the consideration of which Diogenes Laertius tells us Epicurus Laert. 1. 19. began to Philosophize) we might probably believe an agitation of particles (supposing matter created) might settle it in such a confused manner; but that there should be nothing else but a blind impetus of Atoms to produce those valt and most regular motions of the beavenly bodies, to order the passage of the Sun for fo great conveniency of nature, and for the alternate succession of the seasons of the year, which should cut fuch channels for the Ocean, and keep that vast body of the water (whose surface is higher than the earth) from overflowing it, which should furnish the earth with such seminal and prolifick principles, as to provide food and nourifment for those Animals which live upon it, and furnish out every thing necessary for the comfort and delight of mans life; to believe I say, that all these things came only from a blind and fortuitous concourse of Atoms, is the most prodigious piece of credulity and folly, that bumane nature is subject to. But this part which concerns the order and beauty of the parts of the Universe, and the argument thence, that it could be no blind fortuitous principle, but an Infinitely wife God, hath been fo D. H. More fortuitous principle, but an Infinitely wife God, nath been 10 Antid against fully and judiciously handled by a learned Person already, that Atheism, part I shall rather choose to referr the Reader to his discourse than 2. infift any more upon it.

3. The production of mankind is a thing which the Atomist's are most shamefully puzzled with, as well as the Formation of the internal parts of mans body, of which I have already spoken in the precedent Chapter. It would pity one to see what lamentable shifts the Atomists are put to, to find out a way for the production of mankind, viz That cur teeming mother the earth, at last cast forth some kind of bags like evombs upon the surface of the earth, and these by degree: breaking, at last came out children, which were nourished by a kind of juyce of the earth like milk, by which they were brought up till they came to be men. Oh what will not Atheil's believe rather than a Deity and Providence! But lest we should seem to wrong the Atomists, hear what Censorinus. faith of Epicurus; Is enim credidit limo calefactos uteros nescio quos radicibus terræ cohærentes, primum increvisse, & infantibus, ex se editis ingenitum lactis humorem, natura ministrante præbuisse; quos ita educatos & adultos, genus humanum propagasse. But because Lucretius may be thought to speak more impartially in the case, how rarely doth he describe it?

Censor de die Nat. c. 2.

Crescebant uteri terræ radicibus apti,
Quos ubi tempore maturo patesecerit ætas
Infantum, sugiens humorem, aurasque petissens,
Convertebat ibi natura foramina terræ,
Et succum venis cogebat sundere apertis
Consimilem lactis; sicut nunc sæmina quæque
Quum peperit dulci repletur lacte, quod omnis
Impetus in mammas convertitur ille alimenti:
Terra cibum pueris, vestem vapor, herba cubile
Præbebat, multa & molli lanugine abundans.

Had Lucretius been only a Poet, this might have passed for a handsomly described Fable: but to deliver it for a piece of Philosophy, makes it the greater Mythology: that man's body was formed out of the earth we believe, because we have reason so to do; but that the earth should cast forth such folliculi, as he expressed it, and that men should be brought up in such a way as he describes, deserves a place among the most incredible of Poetick Fables. But if Poets must be credited, how much more like a man did he speak, who told us,

Natus.

Natus homo est; sive banc divino semine fecit Ille opifex rerum, Mundi melioris origo; Sive recens tellus, seductaque nuper ab alto Athere, cognati retinebat semina cæli; Quam (atus Iapeto mistam fluvialibus undis, Finxit in effigiem moderantum cuncta Deorum.

Thus have we considered the Epicurean Hypothesis, both as to the Principles on which it stands, and the suitableness of it to the Phanomena of the Universe; and I suppose now there cannot be the least shadow of reason found from the Atomical Philosophy to make us at all Question that account of the Origin of the Universe, which ascribes it not to the fortuitous concourse of Atoms, but to the Infinite wisdom of a Deity. I conclude then this discourse of the Epicurean Hypothesis with the words of Autemedon in the Greek Epigram.

Taur eidws, σορός in, μάτω δ' Επίκερν έασον Tie to nevor Inleir, ni tives ai movastes.

Antholog. L. I. s. 15.

Learn to be wise; let Epicurus chase To find his Atoms, and his empty space.

Se& 13:

I come now to the last Hypothesis mentioned, which undertakes to give an account of the Origin of the Universe from the mere Mechanical Laws of motion and matter. Which is the Hypothesis of the late famous French Philosopher M. Des Cartes. For although there be as much reason as charity to believe that he never intended his Hypothesis as a foundation of Atheism, having made it so much his business to affert the existence of a Deity and immateriality of the soul; vet because it is apt to be abused to that end by persons Atheistically disposed, because of his ascribing so much to the tower of matter: we shall therefore so far consider it as it undertakes to give an account of the Origin of the Univerle without a Detty. His Hypothesis therefore is briefly this. He Princip. p. 3. takes it for granted, that all the matter of the world was at Art. 46, &c. first of one Uniform nature, divisible into innumerable parts, and divided into many, which were all in motion; from hence he

fupposeth,

supposeth, I. That all the matter of which the Universe is composed, was at first divided into equal particles of an indifferent size, and that they had all such a motion as is now found in the world. 2. That all those particles were not at first Sphærical, because many such little Globes joyned together will not fill up a continued space, but that of whatever figure they were at first, they would by continued motion become (pharical, because they would have various circular motions for seeing that at first they were moved with so great force that one particle would be disjoyned from the other, the same force continuing would serve to cut off all angles which are supposed in them, by their frequent occursions against each other; and so when the angles were cut off, they would become sphærical. 3. He supposeth that no space is left empty, but when those round particles being joyned, leave some intervals between them, there are some more subtile particles of matter. which are ready to fill up those void spaces, which arise from those angles which were cut off from the other particles to make them [phærical; which fragments of particles are so little, and acquire thereby such a celerity of motion, that by the force of that, they will be divided into innumerable little fragments, and so will fill up all those spaces which other particles could not enter in at. 4. That those particles which fill up the intervals between the spherical ones, have not all of them the same celerity of motion, because some of them are more undivided than others are, which filled up the space between three Globular particles when their angles were cut off, and therefore those particles must necessarily have very angular figures, which are unfit for motion, and thence it comes to past that such particles easily stick together, and transferr the greatest part of their motion upon those other particles which are less, and therefore have a swifter motion; and because these particles are to pass through such triangular spaces which lie in the midst of three Globular particles touching each other, therefore he supposeth them as to their breadth and depth to be of a triangular figure, but because these particles are somewhat long; and the globular particles through which they pass with so swift motion have their rotation about the poles of the Heavens, thence he supposes that those triangular particles come to be wreathed. Now from these things being thus supposed. Des Cartes hath ingenuously and confonantly confonantly to his principles undertaken to give an account of the most noted Phanomena of the world and those three forts of particles mentioned, he makes to be his three elements; the first is that subtile matter which was supposed to arise from the cuttings off the angles of the greater particles; and of this he tells us the Sun and fixed Stars confift, as those particles of that fubtile matter being in continual motion have made those several vortices or athereal whirlpools. The second element consists of the pharical particles themselves, which make up the Heavens; out of the third element, which are those wreathed particles, he gives an account of the formation of the earth, and Planets, and Comets; and from all of them by the help of those common affections of matter, size, figure, motion, &c. he undertakes to give an account of the Phanomena of the world. How far his principles do conduce to the giving mens minds fatisfaction, as to the particular Phænomena of nature, is not here our business to enquire, but only how far these principles can give an account of the Origin of the Universe without a Deity? And that it cannot give a fatisfactory account how the world was framed without a Deity, appears by the two grand suppositions on which all his elements depend, both which cannot be from any other principle but God. Those are, I. The existence of matter in the world which we have already proved cannot be independent on God, and necessarily existent; and therefore supposing that matter existent and put into motion, would grind it self into those several particles by him supposed, yet this cannot give any account of the Origin of the Universe without a Deity. 2. The motion of the particles of matter supposeth a Antidote b. 2. Deity; for matter is no self-moving principle, as hath been Immortality fully demonstrated in several places by that judicious Philo- of the foul. b. Copher, Dr. H. More, who plainly manifests that if motion did 1.c.11 s. &c. necessarily belong to matter, it were impossible there should be Ep. 3. ad Car-Sun, or Stars, or Earth, or Man in the World; for the mutter being uniform, it must have equal motion in all its particles, if motion doth belong to it. For motion being suppofed to be natural and effential to matter, must be alike every where in it, and therefore every particle must be supposed in motion to its utmost capacity, and so every particle is alike and moved alike: and therefore there being no prevalency at all

in any one particle above another in bigness or motion, it is manifest that this universal matter, to whom motion is so esfential and natural, will be ineffectual for the producing of any variety of appearances in nature; for nothing could be caused by this thin and subtile matter, but what would be wholly imperceptible to any of our senses: and what a strange kind of visible world would this be? From hence then it appears that there must be an infinitely powerful and wife God, who must both put matter into motion, and regulate the motion of it, in order to the producing all those varieties which appear in the World. And this necessity of the motion of matter by a power given it from God is freely acknowledged by Mr. Des Cartes himself in these words; Con-Resp. adep. 3. sidero materiam sibi libere permissam, & nullum aliunde im-H. Mori. p. 104. pulsum suscipientem, ut plane quiescentem; illa autem impellitur à Dec, tantundem motus sive translationis in ea conservante quantum ab initio posuit. So that this great improver and discoverer of the Mechanical power of matter, doth freely confess the necessity not only of God's giving motion in order to the Origin of the Universe but of his conserving motion in it for the upholding it: So that we need not fear from this Hypothesis the excluding of a Deity from being the prime efficient cause of the world. All the question then is concerning the particular manner, which was used by God as the efficient cause in giving being to the world. As to which I shall only in general suggest what Maimonides says of it. Omnia simul creata erant, & postea successive ab invicem separata; altho I am somewhat inclinable to that of Gassendus, majus est mundus opus, quam ut assequi mens bumana illius molitionem possit: To which I think may be well applyed that speech of Solomon; Then I beheld all the work of God, that a man

cannot find out the work that is done under the Sun: because

though a man labour to feek it out, yea further, though a wife man think to know it, yet shall be not be able to find it.

More Nevoch. 1. 2.6.30. Physic. S.1. l. 7. €. 6.

Eccl. 8. 17.

CHAP.

CHAP. III.

Of the Origin of Evil.

Of the Being of Providence. Epicurus his arguments against it refuted. The necessity of the belief of Providence in order to Religion. Providence proved from a consideration of the nature of God and the things of the world. Of the Spirit of nature. The great objections against Providence propounded. The first concerns the Origin of evil. God cannot be the Author of sin if the Scriptures be true. The account which the Scriptures give of the fall of man, doth not charge God with man's fault. God's power to govern man by Laws, though he gives no particular reason of every positive Precept. The reason of God's creating man with freedom of will, largely shewed from Simplicius; and the true account of the Origin of evil. God's permitting the fall makes him not the Author of it. The account which the Scriptures give of the Origin of evil compared with that of Heathen Philosophers. The antiquity of the opinion of ascribing the Origin of evil to an evil principle. Of the judgment of the Perlians, Ægyptians, and others, about it. Of Manichæism. The opinion of the ancient Greek Philosophers; of Pythagoras, Plato, the Stoicks; the Origin of evil not from the necessity of matter. The remainders of the history of the fall among the Heathens. Of the malignity of Dæmons. Providence vindicated as to the sufferings of the good, and impunity of bad men. An account of both from natural light, manifested by Seneca, Plutarch, and others.

IT being now manifested not only that there is a God, but that the world had its Being from him; it thence follows by an easie and rational Deduction, that there is a particular band of Divine providence, which upholds the world in its Being, and wisely disposeth all events in it. For it is a most irrational and abfurd opinion to assert a Deity and deny providence: and in nothing did Epicurus more discover the weakness and puerility of his judgment than in this. Indeed, if Epicurus had no other design in asserting a Deity, than (as many ancient

Sect. 1.

Philosophers imagined) to avoid the imputation of direct Atheilm; and yet to take away all foundations of Religion, he must needs be said to ferwe his Hypothesis well, though he did affert the Being of an excellent nature which he called God; while yet he made him fit as it were with his elbows folded up in the Heavens, and taking no cognizance of humane actions. For he well knew, that if the belief of Divine Providence were once rooted out of men's minds, the thoughts of an excellent Being above the Heavens, would have no more awe or power upon the bearts and lives of men, than the telling men that there are fewels of inestimable value in the Indies, makes them more ready to pay taxes to their Princes. For that Philosopher could not be ignorant, that it is not worth but power, nor speculation but interest that rules the world. The poor Tenant more regards his petty Landlord, than the greatest Prince in the world that hath nothing to doe with him; and he thinks he hath great reason for it; for he neither fears punishment nor hopes for reward from him; whereas his Landlord may disposses him of all he hath upon displeasure, and may advantage him the most if he gains his favour: Supposing then that there were fuch an excellent Being in the world which was compleatly happy in himfelf, and thought it an impairing of his bappiness to trouble himself with an inspection of the world; Religion might then be indeed derived a relegendo, but not à religando; there might be some pleasure in contemplating his nature, but there could be no obligation to obedience. So that Epicurus was the first founder of a kind of Philosophical Antinomianism, placing all Religion in a veneration of the Deity purely for its own excellency without any fuch mercenary eye (as those who serve God for their own ends, as they say, are apt to have) to reward and punishment. And I much doubt that good woman whom the story goes of, who in an Enthusiaftick posture ran up and down the streets with emblems in her bands, fire in the one, as she said, to burn up Heaven, and water in the other, to quench Hell, that men might serve God purely for himself, would, if she had compassed her defign, foon have brought Proselytes enough to Epicurus, and by burning Heaven would have burnt up the cords of Religion, and in quenching Hell would have extinguished the arve and fear of a Deity in the world. Indeed the incomparable excellency. Chap. 3. The Divine Authority of the Scriptures afferted.

excellency and perfection which is in the Divine Nature, to firits advanced to a noble and generous height in Religion, makes them exceedingly value their choice; while they difregard whatever rivals with God for it; but were it not for those Magnetical books of obedience and eternal interest, there are few would be drawn to a due consideration of, much less a delight in so amiable and excellent a nature. And it is impossible to conceive, why God in the revelation of his Will should ever so much as mention a future punishment, or promise an eternal reward, were not the consideration of these things the finerys of Religion.

Which they whose design was to undermine the very fourdations on which all Religion was built, understood far better, than those weak pretended advancers of Religion, who while in such a way they pretend to advance it, do only blow it up. For if men ought not to have an eye and respect to their own future condition, nor serve God on the account of his power to make our fouls miserable or bappy, much less ought men to ferve God with any regard to his Providence, fince the matters which Providence is employed about in this world, are of infinitely less moment, than those which concern our future state. And if we are to have no eye on Divine providence in the exercise of Religion, we shall scarce be able to understand for what end God should take so much care of mankind, and manifest so much of his goodness to them, were it not to quicken them in their feareh after him, and excite them to the more chearfull obedience to him. And when once we question to what end God troubles himself with the world, we are come next door to Epicurus, and may in few steps more delight in the flowers of his Garden. For this was his strongest plea against Providence, that it was beneath the Majesty and Excellency of the Divine nature to stoop so low, and trouble himself so far, as to regard what was done on earth. This being one of his Rata Sententiæ, or Undoubted Maxims, To wanderov no apdaglov & Te av- Diog. Laert. το σεσγμαλα έχει, έτε αλλφ παρέχει, The bleffed and immortal Be. l. 10. ing neither hath any imployment himself, nor troubles himself with others. Which as Maximus Tyrius well observes, is rather a description of a Sardanapalus, than a Deity; nay, of a worse than a Sardanapalus; for he in the midst of all his lofines and effemi- Differt. 29. nacy would yet entertain some counsels for the safety and good

Sect. 2.

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I. I. De Nat.
Deor. lib. 2.
Plutarch. advers. Golot.

of his Empire; but Epicurus his Deity is of so tender a nature, that the least thought of business would quite spoil his happiness. This opinion of Epicurus made the more raised-spirited Moralists so far contemn the unworthy apprehensions which he entertained of the Divine nature, that they degraded him from the very title of a Philosopher in it, and ranked him beneath the most fabulous Poets, who had writ such unworthy things of their Gods, as is evident by the censures which Tully, Plut arch, and others, pass upon him for this very opinion. And they tell him that some of their own men were of a more noble and excellent spirit than Epicurus his Deity, who abhorred softness and idleness, and made it their greatest delight to do good to their Countries. But Epicurus must needs make his God of his own humour (the usual flattery which men bear to themselves, to think that most excellent which they delight in most) as Xenophanes was wont to say of his borle, if he were to describe a God, it would be with a curled main, a broad cheft, &c. and in every thing like himself. Had Epicurus himself so little of an Athenian in him, as not to make it fome part of his delight to understand the affairs of the world? or at least, did he take no pleasure in the walks of his famous garden, nor to order his trees, and fet his flowers, and contrive every thing for his own delight? Would Epicurus then count this a part of his happines? and is it inconsistent with the happines of the Deity to take notice of the world and order all things in it for his own glory? Must so excellent a nature as God's was, by his own acknowledgment, be prefently tired with business, when the more excellent any nature is, the more active and vigorous it is, the more able to comprehend and dispatch matters of moment with the least disturbance to its self? Is it pleasure to a Nurse to fill the child with her milk? doth the Sun rejoice to help the world with his constant light? and doth a Fountain murmur till it be delivered of its streams which may refresh the ground? and is it no delight to the Divine nature to behold the effects of his goodness upon the world? We see here then the foundation on which Epicurus went, viz. that his God must be like himself, or there must be none; and truly he might more fuitably to his principles question his existence, than supposing his existence deny his Providence on such miserable accounts as these are, which yet are the chief which either

either Epicurus or Lucrettes could bring against it, from the consideration of the Divine nature.

Sect. 2.

The which to any one who considers it, doth necessarily inferr a peculiar eye and hand of Providence in the world. For can we imagine that a Being of Infinite knowledge should be ignorant of what is done in the world? and of Infinite power, should fand by and leave things to chance and fortune? Which were at first contrived and brought into Being by the contrivance of his Wildom, and exercise of his Power. And where the foundation of existence lies wholly and solely in the power of an Infinite Being producing, the ground of continuance of that existence must lie in the same power conserving. When men indeed effect any thing, the work may continue, whatever become of him that did it; but the reason of that is, because what man doth, is out of matter already existent, and his work is only fetting materials together; but now what God effects, he absolutely gives a Being to, and therefore its duration depends on his conservation. What is once in its Being. I grant, will continue till some greater force than its self put it out of Being; but withall I add, that God's withdrawing his Confervation is so great a force, as must needs put that Being which had its existence from his power, out of the condition it was in by it. The Light of the Sun continues in the air, and as long as the Sun communicates it, nothing can extinguish the light, but what will put out the Sun: but could we suppose the Sun to withdraw his beams, what becomes of the light then? This is the case of all Beings, which come from an Infinite power; their subsistence depends on a continual emanation of the same power which gave them Being: and when once this is withdrawn, all those Beings which were produced by this power must needs relapse into nothing. Besides, what dependence is there upon each other in the moments of the duration of any created Being? The mode of existence in a creature is but contingent and possible, and nothing is implied in the notion of an existent creature, beyond mere possibility of existence: what is it then which gives actual existence to it? that gannot be its felf: for it would be necessarily existent: if another then gives existence, this existence must wholly depend upon him who gave it: for nothing can continue existence to its felf, but what may give it to its felf, (for it gives it for the. the moment it continues it) and what gives existence to its felf, must necessarily exist, which is repugnant to the very notion of a created Being: So that either we must deny a possibility of non-existence, or annihilation in a creature, which follows upon necessity of existence, or else we must assert that the duration or continuance of a creature in its Being doth immediately depend on Divine Providence and Confervation, which is with as much reason as frequency said to be a continued Creation. But yet further: was an Infinite Wisdom and Power. necessary to put things into that order they are in? and is not the same necessary for the governing of them? I cannot see any reason to think that the power of matter when set in motion, should either bring things into that exquisite order and dependence which the parts of the world have upon each other: much less that by the mere force of that first motion all things should continue in the state they are in. Perpetual motion is yet one of the desiderata of the world: the most exquisite Mechanism cannot put an engine beyond the necessity of being looked after: can we then think this dull, unactive matter. merely by the force of its first motion should be able still to produce the effects which are feen in the world, and to keep it from tumbling, at least by degrees, into its pristine Chaos? It was an Infinite Power, I grant, which gave that first motion; but that it gave power to continue that motion till the Conflagration of the world, remains yet to be proved. Some therefore finding that in the present state of the world, matter will not serve for all the noted and common Phanomena of the world, have called in the help of a Spirit of Nature, which may serve instead of a Man-midwife to matter, to help her in her production of things. Or, as though God had a plurality of avorlds to look after, they have taken care to substitute him a Vicar in this, which is the Spirit of Nature. But we had rather believe God himself to be perpetually resident in the world, and that the Power which gives life, and being, and motion to every thing in the world, is nothing else but his own providence; especially since we have learnt from himself, that it is in him we live and move and have our being.

Acts 17. 28.

Sect. 4.

Thus then we see a necessity of asserting Divine Providence whether we consider the Divine Nature, or the Phanomena of the world; but yet the case is not so clear but there

are two grand objections behind, which have been the continual exercise of the wits of inquisitive men almost in all Ages of the world. The one concerns the first origin of evil; the other concerns the dispensations of providence, whence it comes to pass that good men fare so hard in the world, when the bad triumph and slourish; if these two can be cleared with any satisfaction to reason, it will be the highest vindication of Divine Providence, and a great evidence of the Divinity of the Scriptures, which gives us such clear light and direction in these prosound speculations, which the dim reason of man was so much to seek in.

I begin with the origin of evil; for, if there be a hand of providence which orders all things in the world, how comes evil then into it, without God's being the Author of it? Which is a speculation of as great depth as necessity, it highly concerning us to entertain the highest apprehensions of God's holines, and how far he is from being the author of fin; and it is likewife a matter of some difficulty so to explain the origin of evil as to make it appear that God is not the author of it. easily then assent to what Origen saith on this subject, when orig. c. celf, Celsus upon some mistaken places of Scripture, had charged 1. 4. p. 207. the Scripture with laying the origin of evil upon God; sime EV LAND TIS TORG TO av de de de corois Izeldoses ScouluG, Nampaτός όλι τη φύσει ήμων, εν τέτοις κι ή την κακών τα χθείη αν χώεσις. If any thing which calls for our enquiry be of difficult investigation, that which concerns the origin of evils is such a thing; and as Simplicius well begins his discourse on this subject; Te-Gomment. in ei f two sarsus of ranov o roy o un raros slog Dw Jels, x f neel to Epitet. c. 34. Selov are Belas alm / γέρονε, η τ τη ηθών ευαρρίας τας αξράς διεβάεσέε, κὶ πολλαίς κὶ ἀλύπις ἀπορίαις ἐνεβαλε τες μη καλώς αἰπολογέν-The dispute concerning the nature and origin of evil, not being well stated, is the cause of great impiety towards God, and perverts the principles of good life, and involves them in innumerable perplexities who are not able to give a rational account of it. So much then is it our great concernment to fix on fure grounds in the resolution of this important question; in which I intend not to lanch out into the depth and intricacies of it, as it relates to any internal purpoles of God's will, (which is beyond our prefent scope) but I shall only take that account of it which the Scripture plainly gives in rela-

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ting the fall of the first man. For the clearing of which I shall proceed in this method:

1. That if the Scriptures be true, God cannot be the Author

of sin.

2. That the account which the Scripture gives of the origin of evil, deth not charge it upon God.

3 That no account given by Philosophers of the origin of

evil, is so clear and rational as this is.

4 That the most material circumstances of this account are

attested by the Heathens themselves.

I. That if the Scriptures be true, God cannot be the author of sin. For if the Scriptures be true, we are bound without besitation to yield our assent to them in their plain and direct affirmations, and there can be no ground of suspending affent, as to any thing which pretends to be a Divine Truth, but the want of certain evidence, whether it be of Divine Revelation or no. No doubt it would be one of the most effectual ways to put an end to the numerous controversies of the Christian avorld (especially to those bola disputes concerning the method and order of God's decrees) if the plain and undoubted affertions of Scripture were made the Rule and Standard, whereby we ought to judge of fuch things as are more obscure and ambiguous. And could men but rest contented with those things which concern their eternal happiness, and the means in order to it (which on that account are written with all imaginable perspicuity in Scripture) and the moment of all other controversies be judged by their reference to these, there would be fewer controversies and more Christians in the world. Now there are two grand principles which concern men's eternal condition, of which we have the greatest certainty from Scriture, and on which we may with fafety rely, without perplexing our minds about those more nice and subtile speculations (which it may be are uncapable of all full and particular refolution) and those are, That the ruin and destruction of man is wholly from himself; and, That his salvation is from God alone. If then man's ruin and misery be from himself; which the Scripture doth so much inculcate on all occasions; then without controve se that which is the cause of all the misery of humane nature, is wholly from himself too, which is, sin. So that if the main scope and design of the Scripture be true, God cannot

be the Author of that, by which (without the intervention of the mercy of God) man's misery unavoidably falls uponhim. For with what Authority and Majesty doth God in the Scripture forbid all manner of fin? with what earnest ness and importunity doth he wooe the finner to for fake his fin? with what loathing and detestation doth he mention sin? with what justice and severity doth he punish sin? with what wrath and indignation doth he threaten contumacious sinners? And is it posfible, (after all this and much more, recorded in the Scripsures, to express the boliness of God's nature, his batred of sin, and his appointing a day of judgment for the solemn punishment of sinners) to imagine that the Scriptures do in the least ascribe the Origin of evil to God, or make him the Author of Sin? Shall not the judge of all the world do right? will a God of Infinite Fustice, Purity, and Heliness, punish the sinner for that which himself was the cause of? Far be such unworthy thoughts from our apprehensions of a Deity, much more of that God whom we believe to have declared his mind so much to the contrary, that we cannot believe that and the Scriptures to be true together.

Taking it then for granted in the general, that God cannot be the Author of sin, we come to enquire, whether the account which the Scripture gives of the Origin of evil, deth any way charge it upon God? There are only two ways, according to the history of the fall of man recorded in Scripture, whereby men may have any ground to question whether God were the cause of man's fall; either first, by the giving him that positive Law, which was the occasion of his fall; or lecondly, by leaving him to the liberty of his own will. The giving of that positive Law cannot be the least ground of laying man's fault on God; because, I. It was most suitable to the nature of a rational creature to be governed by Laws, or declarations of the Will of his Maker: For confidering man as a free agent, there can be no way imagined fo consonant to the nature of man as this was, because thereby he might declare his obedience to God to be the matter of his free choice. For where there is a capacity of reward, and punishment, and acting in the consideration of them, there must be a declaration of the will of the Law-giver, according to which man may expect either his reward or punishment. If it were sui-

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Sect. 5.

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table to God's nature to promise life to man upon obedience, it was not unsuitable to it to expect obedience to every declaration of his will; confidering the absolute soveraignty and dominion which God had over man as being his creature, and the indispensible obligation which was in the nature of man, to obey whatever his Maker did command him. So that God had full and absolute right to require from man, whathe did as to the Law which he gave him to obey; and in the general we cannot conceive, how there should be a testimony of man's obedience towards his Creator, without some declaration of his Creator's Will. Secondly, God had full power and authority, not only to govern man by Laws, but to determine man's general obligation to obedience to that particular po-Stive precept by the breach of which man fell. If God's power over man was universal and unlimited, what reason can there be to imagine it should not extend to fuch a positive Law? Was it, because the matter of this Law seemed too low for God to command his creature? but whatever the matter of the Law was, obedience to God was the great end of it, which man had testified as much in that Instance of it as in any other whatsoever; and in the violation of it were implyed the highest aggravations of disobedience; for God's power and authority wasas much contemned, his goodness slighted, his Truth and faithfulnels questioned, his Name dishonoured, his Majesty affronted in the breach of that, as of any other Law whatsoever it had been. If the Law were easie to be observed, the greater was the fin of disobedience; if the weight of the matter was not so great in its self, yet God's authority added the greatest weight to it; and the ground of obedience is not to be fetched from the nature of the thing required, but from the authority of the Legislator. Or was it then because God concealed from man his counsel in giving of that positive precept? Hath not then a Legislator power to require any thing, but what he satisfies every one of his reason in commanding it? if so, what becomes of obedience and subjection? it will be impossible to make any probative precepts on this account; and the Legislator must be charged with the disobedience of his subjects, where he doth not give a particular account of every thing which he requires; which as it concerns humane Legislators (who have not that absolute power and authority which God hath)

hath) is contrary to all Laws of Policy and the general fense De his qui fero of the world. This Plutarch gives a good account of, when puniantur is he discourseth so rationally of the sobreety which men ought number. to use in their inquiries into the grounds and reasons of God's actions; for, faith he, Physicians will give prescriptions without giving the Patient a particular reason of every circumstance in them : ช่าย หั หั ส่งกิดผสกา เอ่นแร ที่เรียงใน, ชก รับภอวอง ลัสภิติร รัฐเสก หา πάντετε φαινόμβουν, άλλ' εθ κ βοκεί κομιδή γελοία τη προσαγμάτων Neither have humane Laws always apparent reason for them, nay forme of them, are to appearance ridiculous; for which he instanceth in that Law of the Laced emonian Ephori, un To per ausana, to which no other reason was annexed but this, 2) Telde Das τοις νόμοις ώς μη γαλεποι έσιν άυλοις: they commanded every Magi-Brate at the entrance of his office to shave himself, and gave this reason for it, that they might learn to obey Laws themselves. He further instanceth, in the Roman custom of manumission, their Laws about testaments, Solon's Law against neutrality in seditions, and concludes thence, 2) onas nonas av Tis Esimos vo may ἀππας, μήτε τ λόρον έχων το νομοθέτε, μήτε των ἀιτίαν συνιείς έκας κ He yeacoulow. Any one would easily find many absurdities in Laws, who doth not consider the intention of the Legislator, or the ground of what he requires. Ti so daumager, faith he, i 7 arbei-สพบ ซัสพร ที่ผู้มีข้องสพบ ปีเอียพยท์สพง, ชั้น รับสอยอง อีล สอ สะยุโ สิ ปิยผัง ยโสยโง, δ πρι λόγφ τες μβο ίσερον, τες 3 σρότερον τάμαςτανόν ων κολάζεσιν. What wonder is it if we are so puzled to give an account of the actions of men, that we should be to leek as to those of the Deity? This cannot be then any ground on the account of mere reason, to lay the charge of man's disobedience upon God, because he required from him the observance of that positive command of not eating of the forbidden fruit.

The only thing then left, is, whether God-be not liable to Sect. 6. this charge as he left man to the liberty of his will: And that may be grounded on two things; either that God did not create man in such a condition, in which it had been impossible for him to have sinned; or that knowing his temptation he did not give bim power to refift it. If neither of these will lay any Imputation of the Origin of evil upon God, then God will appear to be wholly free from it. First, concerning man's being created a free agent; if the determination of the Schools be good, that possibility of finning is implied in the very notion of a

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Vid. Thom. 1.p. creature; and confequently that impeccability is repugnant to the Estium in sen-Sect. 9.

9.63. art. 1. nature of a created Being; then we see a necessary reason, why man was created in a state of liberty: but endeavouring to tent. 1. 2. dist. 7. shew that the grounds of our Religion are not repugnant to natural reason, I shall rather make use of the Testimony of fuch who professed to be followers of nothing else but reason and Philosophy. Among whom I shall make choice of Simplicins both for the reason he produceth, and because he is farthest from any sufficien of partiality, by reason of his known opposition to the Mosaick History of the Creation. He then in his Commentaries on Epictetus professedly disputes this very fubject of the Origin of evil, and after having rejected that fond opinion of two principles, one of good, and the other of evil, undertakes to give an account whence evil came into the world, which because it tends so much to the illustrating our present subject, I shall give an account of. God, saith he, who is the fountain and principle of all good, not only produced things which were in themselves good, nor only those things which were of a middle nature, but the extreams too, which were such things which were apt to be perverted from that which is according to nature, to that which we call evil. And that after those bodies which were (as he supposeth) incorruptible, others were produced which are subject to mutation and corruption; and so after those souls which were immutably fixed in good others were produced which were liable to be perverted from it; that so the riches of God's goodness might be displayed in making to exist all beings which are capable of it; and that the Universe might be perfect in having all forts of Beings in it. Now, he supposeth, that all those Beings which are above this sublunary world are such as are immutably good, and that the lovest sort of Beings which are liable to be perverted to evil, are such which are here below. Therefore, faith he, the foul being of a more noble and immutable nature, while it is by its self, doth not partake of evil; but it being of a nature apt to be joyned with these terrestrial bodies (by the providence of the author of the Universe, who produced such souls, that so both extreams might be joyned by the bonds of vital union) thereby it becomes sensible of those evils and pains which the body is subject to; but these things are not properly evils but rather good, considering our terrestrial bodies as parts of the Universe which is upheld by the changes and viciffitudes.

Com. in Epist. cap. 34. p. 175. cissitudes which are in this lower world: Which he largely discourses on to shew that those particular alterations which are in bodies, do conduce rather to the perfection and beauty of the Universe, than are any real evils in it. But now, saith he, for the origin of those things which are properly evils, viz. moral evils, which are ta & av Dewnivns Jumis Maiopata, the lapses and errors of the humane soul, we are to consider, that there are fouls of a more excellent nature than ours are, which are immutably good; and the souls of brutes are of a lower kind than ours are, and yet are middle between the rational and vegetative, having something in them parallel both to the appetites and evils which are in men, which will therefore be under food by an account of the other. Ἡ ή ἀνθεωπίνη Ψυχή, μέση πευελθέσα Pag. 180. ed. το τε ἀεὶ ἀνω μενεσών Ψυχών, διά τε την ἐν τῆ Ψυχης διά ἀκωύτητα, Salmasii. में की बे निर्मण में पह एवं पिट्ट्राए, में नी बंदो मुक्ता की बे निष कहे के ने क्याब का मू γρίκαν τ άλογε ζωής, κ πίνδεσμο ζωπκός γνομένη το τε ανω καί την χώνω, δια τ αυτεξεσίε οχίσεως, ποτε μέν σερός ενώνα, ποτέ ή σεός ταυτα όμοιεται. The soul of man is nexus utriusq; mundi, in the middle between those more excellent Beings which perpetually remain above, with which it partakes in the sublimity of its nature and understanding, and those inferior terrestrial Beings with which it communicates through the vital union which it bath with the body, and by reason of that freedom and indifferency which it hath, it sometimes is assimilated to the one, sometimes to the other of these extreams. So that while it approacheth to the nature of the Superior Beings, it keeps it self free from evil, but because of its freedom it may sometimes sink down into these lower things, and so he calls the cause of all evil in the foul The autoBakh refooder sis tout Duntor tomor, its voluntary descent into this lower world, and immersing it self in the fæculency of terrestrial matter. καν φύσιν 3 αμφίβολον ελαχεν, έκ αναγκαζομένη κάτεισιν η άνεισιν, άλλ' έτως έσεςη, ώς ότων αύτη θέλη: natieval te nai avieval. For though the soul be of a kind of Amphibious nature, yet it is not forced either upwards or downwards, but acts either way according to its internal liberty. But, faith he, while the rational foul keeps that power which it bath in its bands over the body, and makes use of it only as an infrument for its own good, so long it keeps pure and free from any stain of evil; but when it once forgets the similitude it bath with the more excellent Being, ana:

and throws away the Scepter of its power, and drowns it felf in the body and brutish affections (preferring the pleasure of Senje above that of reason) when it so far degenerates below the principles of reason, that instead of commanding the brutish faculties it becomes a slave to them, then it conceives and brings forth evil; but this it doth not through any co-action or necessity, but through the abuse of that power and liberty which it bath : For the choice is a proper action of the (out it (elf; which be proves from hence, because God and the Laws, and all good men, do not measure the good and evil of actions so much by the event, as by the will and intention of the per on; and that punishment and reward have chiefly a respect to those. And therefore men are pardoned for what they do out of constraint and force, and the fault is ascribed, & The west HOVT and Bracoustin, not to him that did it, but to him that forced him to the doing of it. And so from hence he concludes, that because of the freedom of the will of man, nothing else can be said to be the author of evil properly; but the foul of man; and concludes that difcourse with this excellent speech, "Exorles Ev The dirian to nand, λαμπρά τε φωνή βοωμίν, όπ ο Θεός κακιας αναίπ , διότι το κακον ή Luni creenes autegradus, ni en o Osos es who of Bla to nanco Emeanen in Αυχή, τάχα άν τις ή Θεον ήτιάσατο ή άναιτίως αυτίω συγχωρήπυτα Eladivas, nat Tot & fe namov in To Bia meation ov nata 3 megalessin αὐτο άιρκιβίη άυτη αν αιτία λέροιτο δικαίως. Having thus found out the true Origin of evillet us cry out with aloud voice. that God is not the author of sin, because the soul freely doth that which is evil, and not God; for if the foul were forced to do what it doth, one might justly lay the blame, on God, who permits such a force to be offered it, neither could it be properly evil which the foul was confirmed to; but fince it acted freely, out of choice, the foul must alone be accounted the author and cause of evil. Thus we see that God cannot with any shadow of reason be accounted the author of evil, because he gave the foul of man a principle of internal freedam, when the very freedom of acting which the foul had, put it into a capacity of standing as well as falling. And certainly, he can never be faid to be the cause of the breaking of a person, who gave him a flock to fet up with, and supposed him able to manage it when he gave it him; indeed had not man had this freedom of will, he could not have fallen; but then neither had

had he been a rational Agent, which supposing no corruption, doth speak freedom of action. So that while we enquire after the Origin of evil we have no other cause to assign it to but man's abuse of that free power of acting which he had; but if we will be so curious as to enquire further, why God did create man with such a freedom of will, and not rather fix his soul immutably on good; if the order of beings be no satisfactory reason for it, we can give no other than that why he made man, or the world at all, which was the good pleasure of his Will.

But fecondly, supposing God's giving man this freedom of will, doth not entitle him to be the author of evil; doth not his leaving man to this liberty of his in the temptation, make him the cause of sin? I answer no, and that on these accounts.

Sect. 7.

1. Because man stood then upon such terms, that he could not fall' but by his own free and voluntary act; he had a power to stand, in that there was no principle of corruption at all in his faculties, but he had a pure and undefiled foul which could not be polluted without its own consent: Now it had been repugnant to the terms on which man stood (which were the tryal of his obedience to his Creator) had he been irrefistibly determined Simplicies puts this question after the former any way. discourse, Whether God may not be called the author of sing because he permits the soul to use her liberty? but, saith he, he that (ays God hould not have permitted this use of its freedom to the soul, must say one of these two things, either that the foul being of such a nature as is indifferent to good or evil, it (hould have been wholly kept from the choosing evil, or else that it should have been made of such a nature that it should not have bad a power of choosing evil. The first is irrational and absurd; for what freedom and liberty had that been where there was no choice? and what choice could there have been where the mind was necessitated only to one part? For the second we are to consider, saith he, that no evil is in it self desirable, or to be chosen; but withal, if this power of determining it felf either way must be taken away, it must be either as something not good, or as some great evil; and whoever faith fo, doth not confider, how many things in the world there are which are accounted good and desirable things, yet are no ways comparable with this freedom of Will.

For it excells all sublunary Beings; and there is none would rather desire to be a Brute or Flant than man; if God then shewed his goodness in giving to inferior beings such perfections which are far below this, is it any ways incongruous to God's nature and goodness to give man the freedom of his actions, and a felf determining power, though he permitted him the free use of it? Besides, as that author reasons, had God to prevent man's fin taken away the Liberty of his will, he had likewife destroyed the foundation of all vertue, and the very nature of man; for vertue would not have been such, had there been no possibility of acting contrary; and man's nature would have been divine, because impeccable Therefore, saith he, though we attribute this felf-determining power to God as the Author of it, which was so necessary in the order of the Universe, we have no reason to attribute the Origin of that evil to God which comes by the abuse of that liberty. For, as he further adds, God doth not at all cause that aversion from Good, which is in the soul when it sins, but only gave such a power to the soul, whereby it might turn it self to evil, out of which God might afterwards produce so much good, which could not otherwise have been without it. So consonantly to the Scripture doth that

Pag' 186, 187.

Philosopher speak on this subject.

2. God cannot be faid to be the author of sin, though he did not prevent the fall of man, because he did not withdraw before his fall any grace or affiftance, which was necessary for his standing. Had there been indeed a necessity of supernatural grace to be communicated to man for every moment, to continue him in his Innocency, and had God before mans fall withdrawn fuch affift ance from him, without which it were impossible for him to have flood, it would be very difficult freeing God from being the cause of the Fall of man. But we are not put to such difficulties for acquitting God from being the author of fin; for there appears no necessity at all for asserting. any distinction of sufficient and efficacious grace in man before his Fall; that the one should belong only to a radical power of standing, the other to every act of good which Adam did; For if God made man upright, he certainly gave him fuch a power as might be brought into act without the necessity of any supervenient act of grace, to elicite that habitual power into particular actions. If the other were jufficient it

it was sufficient for its end; and how could it be sufficient for its end, if notwithstanding that, there were no possibility of standing, unless efficacious help were superadded to it? God would not certainly require any thing from the creature in his integrity, but what he had a power to obey; and if there were neceffary further grace to bring the power into act, then the subfracting of this grace must be by way of punishment to man, which it is hard to conceive for what it should be, before man had finned, or else God must substract this grace on purpose that man might fall, which would necessarily follow on this supposition, in which case man would be necessitated to fall, veluti cum subduct is columnis domus necessario corruit, as one expresseth it, as a bouse must needs fall when the pillars on which it stood are taken away from it. But now if God withdrew not any effectual grace from man, whereby he must necessarily fall, then though God permit man to use his liberty, yet he cannot be said to be any ways the author of evil, because man had still a posse si vellet, a power of standing, if he had made right use of his Liberty, and God never took from man his adjutorium quo potuit stare, & sine quo non potuit, as Divines call it, man enjoying still his power, though by the abuse of his Liberty he fell into sin; so that granting God to leave man to the use of his Liberty, yet we see God cannot in the least be charged with being the Author of sin, or of the origin of evil, by the bistory of the fall of man in Scripture: which was the thing to be cleared.

We come now in the third place to compare that account given of the origin of evil in Scripture, with that which was embraced by Heathen Philosophers, in point of reason and evidence. There was no one inquiry whatsoever in which those who had nothing but natural light to guide them, were more to seek for satisfaction in, than this concerning the origin of evil. They saw by continual experience how great a Torrent of both sorts of evils, of sin and punishment, did overslow the world; but they were like the Agyptians, who had sufficient evidence of the overslowing their banks by the River Nile, but could not find out the spring or the head of it. The reason was, as corruption increased in the world, so the means of instruction and knowledge decayed; and so as the Phanomena grew greater, the reason of them was less understood;

Sect. 8.

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the knowledge of the History of the first Ages of the world. through which they could alone come to the full understanding of the true cause of evil, insensibly decaying in the several Nations: Infomuch that those who are not at all acquainted with that History of the world which was preserved in Sacred Records among the Fews, had nothing but their own uncertain conjectures to go by, and fome kind of obfcure traditions which were preserved among them, which while they fought to rectifie by their interpretations, they made them more obscure and false than they found them. They were certain of nothing, but that mankind was in a low and degenerate condition, and subject to continual miseries and calamities; they who cried up the most the autegeonor, or the selfdetermining power of the foul, could not certainly but strangely wonder, that a Principle indifferent to be carried either way. should be so almost farally inclined to the worst of them. It was very strange that since Reason ought to have the command of Pallions by their own acknowledgment, the brutish part of the foul should so master and enslave the rational, and the beast should still cast the rider in man, the sensitive appetite should throw off the power of the to hypurvier, of that faculty of the foul which was designed for the Government of all the rest. The Philosophers could not be ignorant what flaves they were themselves to this terrestrial Hyle, how easily their most mettle some souls were mired in the dirt, how deep they were sunk into corporeal pleasures, that it was past the power of their reason to help them out Nay, when the soul begins to be fledged again, after her Assoppings, or moulting, at her entrance into the body, which Plate speaks of, and strives to raise her self above this lower world, she then feels the weight of fuch Plummets hanging at her feet, that they bring her down again to her former fluttering up and down in her Cage of earth. So Hierocles complains, that when reason begins to carry the foul to the perception of the most noble objects, the foul with a generous flight would foar above this world, อ้านห แท่ รี กล ระโเหล่เร อังหล่เร ผือสะดุ ทอเ แบงย์ผิงโอเง, รัสบอุร์รูทโลน สอุร์รู naniar, were it not born down to that which is evil by the force of passions, which hang like leads upon the soul's feet What a ftrange unaccountable thing must this needs be to those who beheld the constancy of the effect, but were to seek for the cause

Microc. in aurea carmina. 2-17. cause of it? It could not but be clear to them that the aut Exoron they were wont to extoll fo high, was (in the state man was now in) but a more noble name for flavery; when themselves could not but confess the form, or inclination in the foul, was fo strong to the evil; and could that be an even balance, where there was so much down weight in one of the scales? unless they made, as some of them did, the voluntary inclinations of the foul to evil, an evidence of her liberty in this most degenerate condition, as though it were any argument that the prisoner was the freer, because he delighted himself in the noise of his shakles. Neither was this disorder alone at home in the foul, where there was still a Xantippe scolding with Socrates, passion striving with reason; but when they looked abroad in the world, they could not but observe some strange irregulatities in the converse among men. What debaucheries, contentions, rapines, fightings and destroying each other, and that with the greatest cruelty, and that frequently among countrymen friends, nay relations and kindreds! and could this hostility between those of the same nature, and under the most sacred bonds of union, be the result of nature, when even beasts of prey are not fuch to those of their own kind? Besides all this, when they summed up the life of man together, and took an account of the weaknesses and follies of childhood, the heats and extravagancies of youth, the passions, disquierments and disappointments of men in their strength and height of business, the inquietude, aches and infirmities of old age, besides the miferies which through every one of these all men are subject to, and few escape, into how small a sum will the folid pleasure and contentment of the life of man be reduced? Nay, if we take those things in the world which men please themselves the most in enjoyment of, and consider but with what care they are got, with what fear they are kept, and with what certainty they must be lost; and how much the possession of any thing fails of the expectation of it, and how near men are upon the top of Tenariff to fall into the depth of the Sea; how often they are precipitated from the height of prosperity, into the depth of adversity, we shall find yet much less that by the greatest Chymistrie can be extracted of real satisfaction out of these things. Whence then should it come that men's fouls should so delight to feed on these busks, and to embrace Nnn 2 these Set 2.

these clouds and shadows, instead of that real good which is the true object of the foul's defire? They could eafily fee there was no pure, unmixed good in the world, but there was a contemperation of both together, according to that of Euripides:

> Oun av spolo zweis Edna zi nana, 'Αλλ' έςι τις σύγκρασις.

There is a kind of continual mixture of good and evil in the world, which Socrates observed upon the rubbing of his thigh Plat. in Phad. where the fetters made it itch, of arenov & aroges, foine Ti Th τέτο ο καλέσιν οί ανθρωποι ήδύ; ώς θαυμασίως πέρυκε προς το δοκέν ένarliov ED, To Aumipor; What a strange thing is that which men are wont to call pleasure? bow near of kin is it to that which

feems so contrary to it, pain?

Now the observing the strange and fudden vicissitudes of these things, and what near neighbours pain and pleasure were to each other, (so that there is frequently a passage out of one into the other) did yet more entangle them to give a clear account of the origin of both these. Those who believe there was a God, who produced the world and ordered all things in it, did easily attribute whatever was good in the world to the Fountain of all goodness; but that any evil should come from him they thought it repugnant to the very notion of a Deity; which they were fo far right in, as it concerned the evil of sin; which we have already shewed God could not be the author of; but therein they shewed their ignorance of the true cause of evil, that they did not look upon the miseries of life as effects of God's Justice upon the world for the evil of fin. And therefore that they might fet the origin of evil far enough off from God, they made two different Principles of things, the one of good, and the other of evil; this Plutarch tells us was the most ancient and universal account which he could meet with of the origin of good and evil. To which purpose we have this ample Testimony of his in his learned discourse, de Iside & Osiride, Dio x παμπάλαι σα αυτη κάτεισιν επ Βεολόρων η νομοθετή, είς τε ποιητώς η φιλοσόρες δόξα, This dexine affordor Execu, The in mister laupar is fortakemen, in de L'Ozors movor, est è er onmais, anna ér Te Tenefais ér Te Duriais, xì Baç-Baegis xì "Exxnoi สองผล ซองออยอนใน, พร ซา ลีของ หา ลังออง หา ล้นย-Begynfor aimeeira नाई aurouato to mar, हिन्ह मेंड दिया वे स्टूबी केंप में सबी हण-

Plutarch. de Iside & Ofir. p. 369. ed. Fr.

Durwy ..

Chap. 3. The Divine Authority of the Scriptures afferted. Βύνων, ώσπες οἰαξιν ήτισι πειθινοίς καλινοίς λόγ (; άλλα πολλά κ) μεμιγμινα κακοίς κὶ ἀραιθοίς ' μῶλλον ή μης ἐν ὡς ἀπλῶς εἰπείν, ἀκεα-Toy อาโลบี 🗗 จุบังรอง จุรุชงกร · ช ประเท ที่ของ คีร าน แลร, ชังการุ ทล์แลτα τα σράγμα α καπηλικώς διανήμων ανακεράννυσεν ήμιν, άλλ' άπο δυείν εναντίων αξχών, και δυείν αν επαλών δυνάμεων, τ μεν δλί τα δεξιά και καί ευθείαν δαηγεμήνης, τ ή έμπαλιν άνας geφέσης και ανακλώσης, ο τε βίθ μικίος, ο τε κόσμθ εί καὶ μή πάς, αλλ' ο πεείγει ΕτΟ καὶ ως σελωίω, ἀνόμαλ Ο καὶ ποικίλ Ο γίρνε, καὶ μεταβολάς πάσας δεκόμθυ . εί χι έδεν αναθίως πέρυκε γίνεδαι, αί-ท่อง วิ หลหรี r' ลำล วิจ๋ง รัก ฉึง 25 ๑๑๑๑๐๐ , อีร์ วย์งรถง เอร์เลง หละ ล่ง x โม่ง Some and s και κακέ, τω φύσιν έχειν. Which words I have the more largely cited, because they give us the most full account of the antiquity, universality and reason of that opinion which afferts two different principles of good and evil. It is a tradition (faith he) of great antiquity derived down from the ancient Masters of Divine knowledge, and Formers of Common-wealths, to the Poets and Philosophers, whose first Author cannot be found, and yet bath met with firm and unshaken belief, not only in ordinary discourses and reports, but was spread into the mysteries and sacrifices both of Greeks and others, that the Universe did not depend on chance, and was destitute of mind and reason to govern it; neither was there one only reason which fate at the stern, or held the reins, whereby he did order and govern the world; but since there is so much confusion and mixture of good and evil in the world, that nature doth not produce any pure untainted good; there is not any one who like a Drawer takes the liquor out of two several vessels, and mixeth them together, and after distributes them; but there are two principles and powers contrary to each other, whereof one draws us to the right hand, and directs us straight forward, the other pulls us back, and turns us the other way; since we see the life of man so mixed as it is; and not only that, but the world too. at least so much as is sublunary and terrestrial, which is subjest to many varieties, irregularities and changes. For if nothing be without a cause, and good cannot be the cause of evil, it necessarily follows, that as there is a peculiar nature and principle which is the cause of good, so there must be another, which is the cause of evil.

But lest we should think it was only a Sect of a kind of Heathen Manichees which held this opinion; he tells us, to

prevent

prevent that wai done tero wis aneisois wai opporatus, it m'as the opinion of the most, and wisest, of the Heathen. Now these two principles some (faith he) call two opposite Gods, whereof the one is the cause of good, and the other of evil; him they call Oeds, this Jainw. By this one would imagine that this very ancient Tradition was nothing else but the true account of the origin of evil a little disguised. For the Scripture making the Devil the first Author of evil himself, and the first follicitor and tempter of man to it; who when God directed him straight forward, pull'd man back, and put him quite out of his way, by which means all the miferies of the world came into it: For while man kept close to his Maker, his integrity and obedience were to him what the vala umbilicalia are to the child in the Womb; by them he received whatever tended to his subsistence and comfort: but sin cut those vellels asunder, and proved the Midwife of misery, bringing man forth into a world of forrow and fufferings: Now, I fay, the Scripture taking such especial notice of one, as the chief of Devils, through whose means evil came into the world, this gave occasion to the Heathens, when length of time had made the original Tradition more obscure, to make these two, God and the Damon, as two Anti-gods, and so to be the causes. the one of all good, and the other of all evil. Which at last came to that (which was the Devil's great design in thus corrupting the tradition) that both these Anti-gods should have folemn worship by Sacrifices; the one by way of impetration, for bestowing of good; the other by way of deprecation, for averting of evil Such Plutarch there tells us were the Oromasdes and Arimanius of Zoroastres which were worshipped by the Persians, the one for doing good, and the other for avoiding evil; the one they resembled to light (or fire) the other to darkneß and ignorance; what Animals were good and usefull they ascribed to Oromasdes, and all venomous and noxious ones to Arimanius, whom Plutarch elsewhere calls # 70νηρον Δαίμωνα Πεςσών, the evil Damon of the Persians. The fame Dingenes Laertius relates of the Magi, the Philosophers of Persia, that they made two distinct principles, 'Azasor Daimora ri naxiv, a good and bad Damon; for which he quotes Dinon, Aristotle, Hermippus, Eudoxus, and others. The same Plutarch makes to be the opinion of the ancient Greeks, who attri-

Plut. in Alex. Diog. Laertius proæm. ad vit. Philosoph.

attribute the good to Jupiter Olympius, the bad to Hades; the Chaldeans, saith he, make the Flanets their Gods, of which two they suppose the cause of good; two more of only a malignant influence, and other three to be indifferent to either. The same he affirms of the Agyptians, that whatever was evil and irregular, they ascribed to Typho; what was good, comely and ulefull, they attributed to Isis and Ofiris; to This as the pallive, Ohris as the active principle.

Thus we see how large a fread this opinion of the origin Sett 10. of evil had in the Gentile world; neither did it expire with Heathenism; but Manes retained so much of the Religion of his Countrey, being a Persian, that he made a strange medler of the Persian and Christian doctrine together. For that was his famous opinion, of which St. Aust in tells us; Iste duo principia inter se diversa atque adversa, eademque eterna, & co-æterna, hoc est, semper fuisse, composuit; duasque naturas atque substantias, boni, scilicet, & mali, sequens alios antiquos hæreticos, opinatus est. St. Austin thinks that Ma- August. de Hanes had his opinion concerning two principles from the an-ref. c. 46. cient Hereticks, by whom I suppose he means the Marcionists and Valentinians; but it seems more probable that Manes had his doctrine immediately from his Countreymen, though it be generally thought that Scythianus and Buddas were his Masters in it. But from whomsoever it came the opinion was merely Heathen, and not more contrary to Scripture than it is to Reason; the former I meddle not with, that opinion being now extinct in the Christian world; I only briefly consider the unreasonableness of it; to shew what a far better account of the origin of evil the Scriptures give us, than was discovered by the Heathen Philosophers. For on both fides that opinion is repugnant to the notion of a Deity, fo that while they would make two fuch Gods, they make none at all. For how can the principle of good: be God, if he hath not Infinite power, as well as goodne &? and how can he have Infinite power, if he hath not the management of things in the world? and how can he have the management of things, if they be liable to evil, which the other god, which is the principle of evil, may lay upon it; from which, according to this supposition, the principle ofgood cannot rescue it? So that they who hold this opi-

nion cannot, as Simplicius tells us, give God to nuov & sans Duduews, the half of that infinite power which belongs to him; for neither can he keep the good creatures which he makes from the power of the evil Damon, and therefore if he loves them, must be in continual fears of the power of the contrary principle; neither can he free them from the evil which the other lays upon them; for then God's power would be far greater than the evil Damons, and so he could be no Anti-God. And on the other fide the notion or Idea of an Infinite evil Being, is in its felf an inconsistent Idea; for it is an Infinite non-entity, if we suppose his very Being to lie in Being evil, which is only a privation of goodness; and besides if he be Infinitely evil, he must be infinitely contrary to the good Principle; and how can he be infinitely contrary which enjoys several of the same perfections, which the other hath, which are infinity of essence and necessity of existence? Now if this Principle of evil be absolutely contrary to the other, it must be contrary in all his perfections; for whatever is a perfection, belongs to that which is good; and now if it be contrary in every perfection, Infinity of effence, and Necessity of existence, being two, it must be as contrary as is imaginable to them, by which this evil Principle must be infinitely defective in being and existence, and so it will be an infinite non-entity which yet exists, which is the beight of contradiction. Again, if there be such a contrary principle, which is the cause of all evil, then all evil falls out unavoidably, and by the power of this infinitely evil principle, by which means not only all Religion, but all vertue and goodness will be taken out of the world, if this evil principle be infinite; and if not infinite, no Anti-god: and not only so, but all difference of good and evil will be-taken away (and then what need making two fuch contrary principles to give an account of the origin of evil?) for when once evil becomes thus necessary, it loseth its nature as a moral evil; for a moral evil implies in it a voluntary breach of some known Law; but how can that breach be voluntary, which was caufed by an Infinite power in the most proper way of efficiency? And thus if all freedom of will be destroyed (as it is necessarily by this supposition) then no Government of the world by Laws can be supposed, and consequently no reward or punishChap.3. The Divine Authority of the Scriptures afferted.

465

punishment, which suppose liberty of action, and by this means all Religion, Laws, and Providence are banished out of the world, and so this evil Dæmon will get all into his own hands, and instead of two contrary principles, there will be but one infinitely evil Dæmon. Which that there is not, appears by this, that notwithstanding all the evil in the world, there is so much good lest in it, of which there would be none, if this evil Dæmon had Infinite power. By this we see there cannot be a principle infinitely evil; for while they go about to make two such contrary principles infinite, they make neither of them so, and so while they make two Gods, they take away any at all. So that this opinion of the Origin of evil, is manifestly absurd, irrational, and contradictious.

But all the Heathen Philosophers were not so gross as to imagine two such Anti-gods with infinitely active power; but yet those who would not in terms affert it, might be driven to it by the consequence of their opinion concerning the Origin of evil, which did suppose a necessity of it in nature, as showing from that passive principle out of which the world was produced. Hence it was that Heraclius as Plutarch tells us, attributed the Origin of all things to discord and antipathy, and was wont to say, that when Homer wished

Sect. 11.

De Isid & Os-

οπ τε θεων έκι τανθεώπων απολέθαι.

that all contention were banished out of the world, that he did secretly curse the Origin of things, and wished the rum of the world. So Empedocles called the active principle which did good Harmony and Friendship, but the other

Νείκο έλόμενον καὶ δησιν αίμαπεωαν.

by which he makes it to be a quarrelsome, pernicious, and bloody principle. The same Plutarch tells us of those two renowned Philosophers, Pythagoras and Plato. Thence he tells us the Pythagoreans called the principle of good, τὸ ἐν, πεωεφαζωνον, τὸ μένον, τὸ ἐυθὸ, τὸ πεφιωνον, τὸ τετξάρωνον, τὸ δεξιὸν, τὸ λαμπρέν. Unity, finite, quiescent, straight, uneven number, square, right and splendid; the principle of evil, they called τω δυάδα, τὸ ἀπαιερίν, τὸ φερόωρον, τὸ καμπύλον, τὸ ἀξπον, τὸ ἐτερόμη-

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xes,

Necellity

Chalcid. in Ti-

ma. p. 394.

RES, To avisov, To deisteon, To sucleivov. The Binary, Infinite, moving, crooked, even, long of one side, unequal, left, obscure. The opinion of Plato he tells us is very obscure, it being his purpose to conceal it; but he saith in his old age in his book de Legibus, & Si diviquav, & Si ouusoninas, without any if's or and's, he afferts the world to be moved by more than one principle, by two at the least, The who and degoe id, This o evariar ταύτη, κ) την ενανίων δημικερόν. The one of a good and benign nature, the other contrary to it both in its nature and operati-Numerius in Chalcidius thus delivers the opinions of Pythagoras and Plato de originibus as he speaks; Igitur Pythagoras quoque, inquit Numenius, fluidam & sine qualitate lylvam esse censet; nec tamen ut Stoici naturæ mediæ, interque malorum bonorumque viciniam, sed plane noxiam; Deum quippe esse (ut etiam Platoni videtur) initium & causam bonorum. fylvam malorum: so that according to Numenius, both Plato. and Pythagoras attributed the origin of evil to the malignity of matter, and fo they make evils to be necessarily consequent upon the Being of things. For thus he delivers expresly the opinion of Pythagoras; qui ait, existente providentia, mala quoque necessario substitusse, propterea quod sylva sit, & eadem sit malitia prædita: Platonemque idem Numenius laudat, quod duas mundi animas autumet. Unam beneficentissimam; malignam alteram, sc. Sylvam. Igitur juxta Platonem mundo bona sua Dei, tanguam Patris liberalitate collata creat. c. Tima. (unt; mala vero, matris sylvæ vitio cohæserunt. But Plutarch will by no means admit, that Plato attributes the Origin of evil merely to matter, but he makes the principle of evil to be fomething distinct from matter, which he calls The drawlor, is doergor, aυτοκίνηθου 3 is κινηπικου de xiv, a confided infinite, self-moving, stirring principle; which (faith he) he elsewhere calls Necessity, and in his de Legibus plainly, Juziv araklov no nanomolov, a disorderly and malignant Soul, which cannot be understood of mere matter, when he makes his Hyle Luogoov หู ส่ลูกผลับระบ หู หล่อทร พอเอกที 🕒 หลา Suduews อังหล่อง รัฐทนอง, Without form or figure, and destitute of all qualities and power of operation: and it is impossible (faith he) that that

> which is of it self such an inert principle as matter is, should by Plato be supposed to be the cause and principle of evil, which he elsewhere calls ard yello monna to be of sur uax sour is a quesa & sour,

De Anima pro-

Necessity which often resisted God and cast off his reins. So that according to Plutarch, Plato acquits both God and Hyle from being the Origin of evil, The ye Talu Sagoegs andons anaxλαίτων, κ) 🕆 θες την την ισκών αιτίαν απωτάτω πθέμθυΘ, and therefore attributes it to that malignant spirit which moves the matter, and is the cause of all the disorderly motions in the World. But what this first should be, neither he nor any one else could ever understand; what darkness and ignorance then was there among the wifest of Philosophers concerning the Origin of evil, when they were so confused and obscure in the account which they gave of it, that their

the Origin of evil, whether he should attribute it to the Hyle,

greatest admirers could not understand them! But though Plato feemed so ambiguous in his judgment of Sect. 12.

or some malignant spirit in it, the Stoicks were more dogmatical, and plainly imputed the cause of evil to the perversity of matter. So Chalcidius tells us, that the Stoicks Chalcid in Tim, made matter not to be evil in it felf as Pythagoras, but that p. 395. it was indifferent to either; perrogati igitur unde mala? perversitatem seminarium malorum causati sunt : they made the perversity of matter the Origin of evil; but as he well observes, nec expediunt adbuc unde ipsa perversitas, cum juxta ipsos duo sint initia rerum, Deus & sylva. Deus summum & pracellens bonum; sylva, ut censent, nec bonum nec malum. They give no rational account whence this perversity of matter should arise, when according to the Stoicks, there are but two principles of things, God and matter, whereof the one is perfectly good, the other neither good nor evil. But this perversity they tell us is something necessarily consequent upon the Generation of things. त्यारव त्रवंह हैन मर्गी पर गाँ की क्रिकेटल σερεπόμενα, ώσπες ίθ τω χαλκώ, και ο ρυπος τω σωμαπ, thefe are affections, (viz. the diforders in the world) which follow the Generation of things, as rust comes upon brass, and filth upon the body, as the counterfeit Trismegistus speaks; To Maximus Tyrius faith that evils in the world are & TEXVIS Maxim. Tyrius έຽງa, and Juns mann, not any works of art, but the affections of Serm. 25. matter. Non potest artisex mutare materiam, saith Seneca, Seneca de Prowhen he is giving an account why God suffers evils in the

world: and elsewhere gives this account why evils came into prefat. ad na-

the World, non quia cessat ars, sed quia id in quo exercetur tur. quaft.

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inobsequens artiest. So that the Origin of evil by this account of it lies wholly upon the perversity of matter, which it feems was uncapable of being put into better order by that God who produced the world out of that matter which the Stoicks supposed to be eternal. And the truth is, the avoiding the attributing the cause of evil to God, seems to have been the great reason, why they rather chose to make it matter necessary and co existent with God, and this was the only plaufible pretence which Hermogenes had for following the Platonists and Stoicks in this opinion, that he might set God far enough off from being the author of sin; but I cannot see what advantage comes at all by this Hypothesis, but it is chargeable with as many difficulties as any other. For, I. It either destroys God's omnipotency, or else makes him the approver of evil, so that if he be not auctor, he must be assentator mali, as Tertullian speaks against Hermogenes, because he suffered evil to be in matter; for, as he argues, aut enim potuit emendare sed noluit; aut voluit quidem, verum non potuit infirmus Deus; si potuit & noluit, malus & ipse, quia malo favit; & sic jam habetur ejus licet non instituerit, quia tamen si noluisset illud esse, non esset; ipse jam fecit esse, quod noluit non esse: quo quid est surpius? si voluit esse quod ipse noluit fecisse, adversum semetipsum egit, cum & voluit esse quod noluit fecisse, & noluit fecisse quod voluit esse. So that little advantage is gained for the clearing the true origin of evil by this opinion; for either God could have taken away evil out of matter but would not, or else would but could not: this latter destroys God's Omnipotency, the former his goodness; for by that means evil is in the world by his consent and approbation; for if God would not remove it when he might, the Being of it will come from him; when if he would have hindred it, it would not have been, and fo God by not rooting out of evil, will be found an affertor of it; male si per voluntatem; turpiter si per necessitatem, aut famulus erit mali Deus, aut amicus; if God's will were the cause why sin was, it reflects on his goodness, if God's power could not hinder it, it destroys his omnipotency. So that by this opinion God must either be a flave or a friend to evil. 2. This principle overturns the foundations of Religion, and all transactions between God and mens (culs in order to their welfare, because it makes evil

Tertul. sdv. . Hermeg. c. 10.

I.

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evil to be necessarily existent in the World; which appears from hence, in that evil doth refult from the Being of matter, and so it must necessarily be, as matter is supposed to be; for whatever refults from the Being of a thing, must be co-existent with it; and so what flows from what doth necessarily exist, must have the same Mode of existence which the Being it self hath; as is evident in all the attributes of God, which have the same immutability with his nature: now then, if evil did exist from eternity together with matter, it must necessarily exist as matter doth, and so evil will be invincible and unavoidable in the World; which if once granted, renders Religion useles, makes God's Commands unrighteous, and destroys the foundation of God's proceedings in the day of Judgment 3. This opinion makes God not to be the author of good, while it denies him to be the Author of evil. For either there was nothing else but evil in this eternal matter, or there was a mixture of good and evil; if nothing else but evil which did necessarily exist, it were as impossible for God to produce good out of it, as to annihilate the necessarily existent matter. If there were a mixture of good and evil, they were both there either necessarily or contingent. ly; how could either of them be contingently in that which is supposed to be necessarily existent, and no free agent? If they be both there necessarily, 1. It is hard conceiving how two fuch contrary things as good and evil, should both necessarily be in the same uniform matter. 2. Then God is no more the Author of Good than of Evil in the World; for he is faid not to be the Author of evil because it comes from matter; and so it appears good doth too, and fo God according to this opinion, is no more the Author of good, than he is of evil. But if it be said that good is not in matter, but God produced that out of nothing: Then I reply, 1. If God did produce good out of nothing, why did he not produce matter out of nothing too? if he were so powerful as to do the one, there could be no defect of power as to the other. What insufficiency is there in God's nature for producing all things out of nothing, if he can produce any thing out of nothing? 2. If God did produce good out of evil, why could he not have removed all evil out of matter? for good could not be produced, but by the removing of some evil which was before that good, and so God might have removed all evil out of matter. And.

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And fo by not doing it when he might, this opinion gives not the least satisfaction in point of reason for acquitting God from being the Author of fin, nor for clearing the true Origin of evil.

Sect. 13.

Thus we have now compared the account given of it in Scripture, with that given by the Heathen Philosophers, and find it in every thing more clear, rational and satisfactory than theirs is. Which doubtless is the reason, why the more modern Philosophers, such as Hierocles, Porphyrie, Simplicius and others, though otherwise great opposers of Christianity, did yet in this side with the Scriptures and attribute the original of evil not to matter but to the Will of man. And whoever is feriously conversant with the writings of those Philosophers, who were on f isegs fusas of the lacred succession, out of the School of Ammonius at Alexandria, such as Plotinus, Porphyrius, Famblichus and Hierocles, will find them write in a higher strain concerning many weighty and important truths, as of the degeneracy of mens souls from God, and the way of the fouls returning to him, than the most sublime of the ancient Philosophers had done. Which speculations of theirs no doubt arose not so much from the School of Plato, and Pythagoras, as of that great restorer of Philosophy Ammonius of Alexandria; whose Scholars Herennius, Origen and Plotinus were. Who living and dying a Christian, as Eusebius and Hierom afhist 1.6.c. 19. sure us, whatever Porphyrius suggests to the contrary, did communicate to his Scholars the sublimer Mysteries of Divine Revelation, together with the speculations of the ancient Philosophers: which Holftenius conceives he did with an adjuration of secrecy, which he tells us Porphyrius himself acknowledgeth, that those three Scholars of Ammonius, Herennius, Origen and Plotinus, were under an obligation to each other not to reveal and discover, though it were after violated by them. It is an easie matter to conceive what an excellent improvement might be made of the ancient Platonick Philosopby by the advantage of the Scriptures, by one who was fo well versed in both of them as Ammonius is supposed to have been; and how agreeable and becoming would that Philosophy feem which had only its rife from Plato, but its beight and improvement from those rich and truly divine Truths which were inlaid with them? The want of observing this, viz. whence it was that those excellent discourses in the latter Platonist's had

Euseb. Escles. Hierony. de Scrip. Eccl. De vit. &. Script. Porphyr.c. 6.

had their true original, hath given occasion to several mistakes among learned men: as first the over-valuing of the Platonick Philosophy, as though in many of the discourses and notions of it, it feemed to some (who were more in love with Philosophy than the Scriptures) to out-goe what is discovered therein concerning the fame things. A most groundless and unworthy censure! when it is more than probable (and might be largely manifested, were it here a fit opportunity) that whatever is truly generous and noble in the sublimest discourses of the Platonists, had not only its primitive rise, but its accession and improvement from the Scriptures wherein it is still contained in its native lustre and beauty, without those paintings and impure mixtures which the sublimest truths are corrupted with in the Platonick Writings. The reason of which is, though these Philosophers grew suddenly rich through the spoils they had taken out of the Scriptures, yet they were loth to be known, from whence they had them, and would feem to have had that out of their own gardens which was only transplanted from the Sacred writings. Therefore we find them not mentioning the Scriptures and the Christian dostrine without some contempt of its meanness and simplicity; and whatever improvement they had gained by them, they would have it less taken notice of by professing their opposition to the Christians, as is notorious in those great Philosophers, Porphyrius, Famblichus, Hierocles, Simplicius and others. It being their design to take so much and no more out of the Christian Doctrine as they could well fuit with their Platonick notions, by which means they so disguised the faces of the Truths they stole, that it were hard for the right owners of them to know them again. Which was the grand artifice of their great Master Plato, who doubtless by means of his abode and acquaintance in Agypt about the time when the Jews began to flock thither, had more certain knowledge of many truths of grand importance, concerning the Deity, the Nature of the foul, the Origin of the world, than many other Greek Philosophers had; but yet therein lay his great fault, that he wrapt up and difguifed his notions in fuch a fabulous and ambiguous manner, that partly it might be less known from whence he had them, and that they might find better entertainment among the Greeks, than they were ever like to do in their plain Plato in Epinom.

plain and native dress. Which Plato himself seems somewhere to intimate, when he faith, that what the Greeks received from the Barbarians, ηάλλιν τότο els τέλ Φ ἀπεργάζονται, they put it into a better fashion, i.e. they disguise it, alter and change it as they please, and put it into a Greek habit, that it might never be suspected to have been a Foreigner. Thence Tertullian speaks with a great deal of truth and freedom of such Philosophers who did ingenii sitim de prophetarum fonte irrigare as he expresseth it) that quenched their thirst after knowledge with the Waters of Fordan (though they did not like Naaman, cure the leprofie of the head by washing in them) for as Tertullian faith, they came only ex negotio curiofitatis, more to please the itch of their curiosity than to cure it.

And wherein they feemed most to agree with the Scriptures.

Apol. c. 47.

ma, cap. 2.

their difference was beyond their agreement. Siquidem vera Tertul. de Ani- quæque & consonantia Prophetis aut aliunde commendant aut alior sum subornant, cum maxima injuria veritatis quam efficiunt aut adiuvari falsis aut patrocinari. Whatever the Philo-Cophers Speak agreeable to the Scriptures, either they do not own whence they had it, or turn it quite another way, whereby they have done the truth a great deal of injury, by mixing it with their corruptions of it, and making that little truth a plea for the rest of their errors. Neither was this only among the ancient Fh.losephers, but the Primitive Christians began to discern the under-hand workings of fuch, who fought to blend Philofophy and Christianity together; for Tertullian himself takes great notice of fuch, who did Veritatis dogmata ad Philosophicas sententias adulterare, suborn Christianity to maintain Philosophy; which makes him cry out, Viderint qui Stoicum, & Platonicum, & Dialecticum Christianismum protulerunt; by which we fee what tampering there was betimes rather to bring Chrifinnity down to Philosophy, than to make Philosophy truckle under the truth and simplicity of the Scriptures. Whether Ammonius himself, and some others of the School of Alexandria, might be guilty in this kind, is not here a place to enquire, though it be too evident in the Writings of some, that they rather feek to accommodate the Scriptures to the Sentiments of the School of Plato, than to reform that by the Scriptures; but I say, however it were with those who were Christians, yet those who were not, but only Philosophers, made

De Proferip. advers baret. 6ap. 7.

made their great advantage by it. For when they found what was reconcilable with the Doctrine of Plato in the Scriptures, done already to their hands, by the endeavours chiefly of Ammonius and Origen, they greedily embrace those improvements of their Philosophy, which would tend so much to the credit of it, and as contemptuously reject what they found irreconcilable with the dictates of their Philosophy. Now what an unreasonable thing is it, when whatever was noble and excellent in the Heathen Philosophy was derivative from the Scriptures, as the facred Fountain of it, that the meeting with fuch things should in the least redound to the prejudice of the Scriptures from whence it was originally derived? when on the other fide it should be a great confirmation to our faith, as to the Scriptures, that they who were professed Philosophers and Admirers only of reason, did so readily embrace some of those grand Truths which are contained in the Word of God.

For which we need no other instance, than that before us, concerning the origin of evil, the making out of which will tend to the clearing the last thing mentioned concerning it, which was, That the most material things in it are attested by the Heathens them [elves. And this boney which is gained out of the Lion's mouth, must needs taste sweeter than any other doth. For it is a weak and groundless mistake on the other side, which is the fecond (which ariseth from meeting things consonant to the Scriptures in the Writings of Philosophers) prefently to conclude from fuch things, that they were Chri-(tians (as it is faid some have lately done in the behalf of Hierocles.) For there being such clear accounts given in Scripture of the grand difficulties and perplexities which the minds of men were troubled with, when these came to the knowledge of fuch who were of Philosophick and Inquisitive heads. we cannot but think they would meet with acceptation among them, especially if they might be made consistent with their former speculations. Thus it was in our present case concerning the origin of evil, we have already beheld the lamentable perplexities the ancient Philosophers were in about it, what Maanders they were lost in for want of a clue to guide them through them; now it pleased God, after the coming of Christ in the flesh, to declare to the world the only way for the reco-

Sect. 14.

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Sect. 15.

very of fouls, and their eternal falvation, the news of which being spread so far that it soon got among the Philosophers. could not but make them more inquisitive concerning the state and condition of their fouls, and when they had fearched what the Philosophers had formerly discovered of it, their curiosity would prefently prompt them to fee what account of things concerning the fouls of men was delivered by the Preachers of this New doctrine. By this they could not but presently understand that they declared all men's souls to be in a most degenerate and low condition, by being fo continually under the power of the most unreasonable and unruly passions, that they were estranged from God, and prone to fix on things very unfuitable to their nature, as to all which, their own inward fence and experience could not but tell them that these things were notoriously true; and therefore they enquire further how these things came to be so; which they receive a full account of in Scripture, that man's foul was at first created pure and holy. and in perfect friendship with God, that God dealt bountifully and favourably with man; only expected obedience to his Laws: that man being a free agent, did abuse his liberty, and disobered his Maker; and thence came the true Aseppoints, the feathers of the foul, whereby it foared up to Heaven, moulted away, and the foul funk below its felf into a degenerate and apost are condition, out of which it is impossible to be recovered without some extraordinary expression of Divine Favour. Now what is there in all this account, but what is hugely fuitable to principles of reason, and to the general experience of the world, as to those things which were capable of being tryed by it? And those Philosophers who were any thing ingenuous, and Lovers of truth, could not but confess the truth of those things which we are now speaking of, viz. That men's souls are in a very degenerate condition. That the most rational account of it is, That man by the act of his own will brought himself into it; and that in order to the happiness of men's souls, there was a necessity of recovery out of this condition.

As to the degeneracy of the souls of men; This was the common complaint of those Philosophers, who minded the government of themselves, and the practice of vertue, especially of the Platonists and Stoicks. Seneca in all his moral Discourses, especially in his Epistles, may speak sufficiently in behalf of

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the Stoicks, how much they lamented the degeneracy of the world. And the Platonists all complain of the slavery of the foul in the body, and that it is here by way of punishment, for fomething which was done before; and which makes me fomewhat inclinable to think, that Plato knew more of the lapfe of mankind, than he would openly discover; and for that end disguised it after his usual manner in that hypothesis of præ-existence, which taking it Cabbalistically (for I rather think the opinion of præ-existence is so to be taken, than the history of the fall of man) may import only this, That men's fouls might be justly supposed to be created happy, but by reason of the Apostase of man's soul from God, all Souls come now into their bodies as into a kind of prison, they being enslaved to the brutish part within them, there having been such a true Asespounds, the soul being now deprived of her chiefest perfections in this ber low and degenerate condition. And it seems far more rational to me to interpret those persons opinions to a Cabbalistical, or an Allegorical sence, who are known to have writ defignedly in a way obscure and ambiguous, than to force those men's expressions to Cabbala's, who profess to write a plain History, and that with the greatest simplicity and perspicuity. But it cannot but feem very strange that an hypothesis capable of being reconciled to the plain literal sence of the Scriptures (delivered by a person who useth great artifice and cunning to difguise his opinions, and such a person withall, who (by fuch persons themselves who make use of this opinion to that end) is supposed to have been very conversant with the writings of Moses) should be taken in its literal sence, as it really imports pra-existence of each particular soul in the grossest manner; and this should be made to be a part of the philosophick Cabbala of the writings of such a perform who useth not the least artifice to disquise his sence, nor gives us any where the least intimation that he left behind him such plaited pictures in his bistory of the beginning of the world, that if you look straight forward, you may see a literal Cabbala, on the one side a philosophical, and on the other a moral. But now if we remove the Cabbala from Mofes to Plato, we may find no incongruity or repugnancy at all either as to Plato his way of writing, or the consonancy of the opinion so interpreted to the plain genuine sence of Moses, if by Plato his opinion of the Ppp 2 præpræ-existence and descent of souls, be understood by the former. the bappy state of the soul of man in conjunction with God; and by the latter, the low and degenerate condition which the

Soul is in, after Apostasie from him. Which the latter Platonists are so large and eloquent in expressing. Porphyrie, where

De Abstinen. lib. 3. Sect. 27.

Hieroc. in Pythag. Corm. p. 2.61.

he speaks of some things he counsels men to doe, hath these words, But if we cannot doe them, let us at least doe that which was so much lamented of old, To Senventor Tegs The Taxator. which is, as Tolov Enl' Ecidor, Enle vernior floquesa, on To Jegor is anneglov, ni en maore a Brastes out de le Suragesa. Let us at the least join with our Fore-fathers in lamenting this, that we are compounded of such disagreeing and contrary principles, that we are not able to preserve divine, pure and unspotted Innocency. And Hierocles fully expresseth his sence of the degeneracy of mankind, in these words; Oi & Theisos nanoi is of mesonadelas ที่ที่ธร หลา ดุระบอธิกลธ์อาร รัสอ รี ค่ร ขนอ บอบออลร ชูบอนในอเ, ลร หลา ริงาอ πις έαυτβ το κακον έχειν, διά το βεληθιώαι φυγείν άπο Θεέ, καλ ἀπομερίσαι αυτές τ τέτε όμιλίας, δε ευπύχεν εν αυχη καθαρά διάρονίες τη βάπο Θεθ χώρισμον βλάπονία τὰς φρένας ή προς γιω νεύση Indoi. The most of men in the world are bad, and under the command of their passions, and grown impotent through their propensity to earth; which great evil they have brought upon themselves, by their wilfull Apostasie from God, and withdrawing themselves from that Society with him which they once enjoyed in pure light: which departure of men's fouls from God, which is so burtfull to the minds of men, is evident by their strong inclination to the things of this world. The same Author mentions, with much approbation, that speech of Heraclitus, speaking of those souls which are amolor sis naniar, which I cannot better render, than undeclinably good, he faith, 576 Comes & cheivar Savalor, redrhamer 3 & cheivar Bior: We live their death, and die their life: મહા મુંદર & મહા હે mo માં માલ જે કહે જે લા μου ઉ મહાદ્વક હ avsewa G. For man is now fallen down from that bleffed region, and as Empedocles the Pythagorean speaks,

> Duza's DeoDev nal axinthe Neind parvousing mound:

Which words cannot be better rendred, than in the words the Scripture useth concerning Cain, and he went from the pre ence

presence of the Lord, and was a fugitive in the earth, and under continual perplexities. For the foul of man having left A AHLOVA & adnoslas (it is Hierocles his own expression) the Hierocl. in pleasant meadow of truth (a fit description of Paradise 79 Pythag. p.254. อ์ยนที่ ซ์ ฟิรยารุ้อยที่อาเอร ธาร yhivov รัฐหลาง อันส อกิริเธ สาลัง 🕒 สมรภิริเร. Through the violence of her moulting, or deplumation, the comes into this earthly body, deprived of that bleffed life, which the before enjoyed. Which he tells us is very confonant to Plato's sence of the rd 3019, or descent of souls, that when by reason of their impotency of fixing wholly on God they suffer our viar nai 7/3poppunou, some great los, and a deprivation of former perfections. (which I suppose is meant by the Meegapounges, the souls impotency of flying up above this earthly world) then they lapse into these terrestrial and mortal bodies. So Hierocles concludes with this excellent and Divine speech, dome Ev i Deb Dev อบาท, หล่า ที่ พีรครุอุธับทธาร สม หมองไอบโอบ ทุนลิร สอุรร ชล ลับอ ราร ซ สุม Sunty Everne Tomov, of Ta nana Coversolar. ETES Ev is & Sunfis megσπαθείας αποδολή, κ, ή την άςετην, οἷον πεςῶν τινῶν ἐκουσις περς τ των καλών καθαρόν τόπον, είς την θείαν εύζωιαν ημάς ανάξη. As therefore by apostasie from God, and the moulting of those feathers of our fouls, whereby we may be railed up above this world. we have fallen into this place of mortals which is compassed about with evils: So by the casting off carnal affections, and by the growth of vertues like new feathers to the foul, we shall ascend to the place of pure and perfect good, and to the enjoyment of a divine life. So much more becoming Christians do these excellent Philosophers speak of the degeneracy of men's souls, and the consequents of it, than some who would be accounted the followers of reason, as well as of Christ, who make it so much of their business to extenuate the fall of man. Which we find those who were mere Philosophers, far more rational and ingenuous in, than those who pretend so highly to reason; but I think with as little of it as any, supposing the Scriptures to be of Divine authority. But it is not here our business to consider the opinions of those who pretend to Christianity, but only of fuch who pretending only to reason, have yet consented. with the doctrine of the Scriptures as to the degeneracy of the Souls of men, that it lies in an Apostasie from God, and having lost those perfections which they had before.

Seet 16. 2.

In aur. Carm. Pag. 258.

That man's will is the cause of his Apostasie; this we have already manifested at large from the testimony and reason of Simplicias, and Hierocles is as large and clear in it as the other. with expressions much of the same nature. Meon 28 872 1 78 ανθεώπε εσία τον τε ακ νοένων τ θεον, κι τον μηθεποίε νοκίν πεουκότων, ανεισι σε ς ενείνα, κ κάτισι πρός ταυτα, νε κίνος και αποβολή, πρός την δείαν όμοίωσιν και την βήςειον, διά το τ φύσεως αμφίβιον άvauce of oinductin. Man's nature lying between those beings which perpetually contemplate God, and those which are uncapable of it, it sometimes ascends to those, and sometimes descends to these, according as it observes or rejects the dictates of reason, and so by reason of the indifferency of the will is liable to take upon it the similitude of God or a beaft. Tait' &v o mei & av Dew minns Egywards soias, oide mus audalecta mual Execu of avθεωποι, κ) πως Τλήμονες κ) τάλανες τ έαυτβ αίξεσεσι ήνον αι. And who ever throughly considers this, will easily understand, how men are the causes of their own evils, and become unhappy and miserable through their own choice and self-wills. Which he brings in by way of explication of that truly golden Pythagorean Verse.

> Ivaon di avdeames audaigela minal 'éxorlas Tanuovas.

Men are grown miserable through their own fault. And afterwards Hierocles excellently describes the nature of evil in these Words, में ने कापकारेड बैपक में हेमांमानीक मंद्रीय मुक्ति, में मह कार्य है है के cion rivnois. Both our natural and contracted pravity, is nothing else but the unnatural motion of our free wills: according to which, faith he, ενανπέδαι τοίς θείοις νόμοις πειρώμεθα, έθεν έπαιδανόμβροι όσον έαυθες βλάπομεν, διά το δοκείν άνθιπείνον Θεώ άλλ μώνον τέτο πολώς δεώνζες, όπ εθνήθημεν άρνιάσαι τη έκείνε θεσμών. We dare to contradict the Laws of God, not being sensible bow much we injure our selves when we doe it; and only look at this, that we are able to cast off the reins of God's Laws from our necks. And he truly faith, That it is the greatest abuse of liberty to offend God, when we either doe what he forbids, or neglect what be requires. Iva enalegader & adrion @ earles TANGEOTO of T Delov vomov En Balvovles, To TE MA TOLET TO BESE aywhich nai To Toisiv Ta ampresumia. So that on both fides men bring misery upon themselves, by transgressing the divine Law, both

both by not doing what they are commanded, and by doing what they are forbidden. So that he fully ascribes the origin of evil to the π αὐτεξέσιον κίνημα δρά φύσιν διατεθέν, as he calls it, the irregular motion of the will of man, which we have already

shewed to be the doctrine of the Scriptures:

As to the necessity of the soul's recovery from this condition, in order to her felicity, we have these Philosophers expressing their confent with the Scriptures; Porphyrius, as St. Augustine August, de Citells us in the end of his first book, De regressu anima, doth vit. Dei, l. 10. acknowledge the necessity of a way of recovering fouls, which should be universal. Cum autem dicit Porphyrius, Nondum receptam unam quandam sectam, quæ universalem viam animæ contineat liberandæ, --- nondumque in suam notitiam eandem viam bistoriali cognitione perlatam, proculdubio confitetur esse aliquam, sed nondum in suam venisse notitiam. But the necessity of the purgation of the soul in order to its felicity, is so largely and fully discoursed of by all the Platonists and Pythagoreans, that it will be needless to insist upon it. Thus far then we find the account given of the origin of evil in Scripture to be embraced by the sublimest of the Heathen Philosophers, as most rational and satisfactory; which was the thing to be proved.

Neither do we find only the main of this account acknowledged as rational, but we may trace fome not obscure footsteps of the truth of the particular circumstances which concern the fall of man, among the Heathens: fuch as the Devil's envying of man's happiness, his disguising himself under the form of a Serpent, and man's being thrown out of Para-

dise upon his fall.

I. The Devil's envying the happiness of man. It hath been D. Casaub. Oritruly observed by a learned man, that the original of that ve- ginal of temry ancient opinion among the Heathen, de invidia Damonis, poral evils. had its rife from the bistory of the fall of man, which he hath made out so fully, that I shall the less need to prove it. And that there was an undoubted tradition of some malignant spirits, which envyed the welfare of mankind, appears by that ample Testimony of Plutarch, in his Dio, mentioned by the same Author; Our of Sa, wit The main randice to at moralor aναγκαθώμεν προσθέχεδαι λόγον, ώς τα ραύλα δαιμόνια κή βάσκανα, कल्डिक निर्णाहित्व माँड केन्व निर्णाड़ कार्र ह्लंडार में में क्लूब्रेंडार रेगाइके की का मक्क

3.

Sect. 17.

χὰς τὸ φόβες ἐπάχει, σείονλα τὸ σφάλλονλα των άξετων ώς μη διαμμίαντες απώτες ον τω καλώ κι απέραιοι, βελίων Θ οπώνων μοίρας μο την τελευθήν πίχωσιν. Plutarch was much troubled to give an account of the apparitions which Brutus and Dio, who were learned and philosophical men, were haunted withall; and doubts he can give no just account of it, unless he embraced that very ancient tradition (which yet feemed absurd and incredible,) viz. That there are certain wicked and malignant Damons, which envy good men, and withstand their enterprizes, by raising fears and troubles to them, that so they might hinder them in their pursuit of vertue; lest, if they continue stedfast and unmoveable in good, they should be at last partakers of greater felicity than they enjoy. There being then so ancient a tradition of such iseisal Saudires, (as the learned man mentioned hath more fully shewed in his notes on this place of Plutarch,) gives a great confirmation to the truth of what the Scripture reports concerning the Devil's being so great an Instrument in procuring the fall of man. To him therefore I referr the inquisitive Reader, and shall not add to the Testimonies of him Plutarch. de I- cited, that of Xenocrates in Plutarch, de Iside & Osiride, where he faith that the calamities of life and misfortunes men meet with, do not agree with that veneration which we have for the Deity and good pirits, 'Ann' El ovogs en to were golf merdλας μεν κλίρυρος δυσερίπες ή κλ σκυθεωπός, ευχαίεκοι τοις τοικτοις. But that there are in the air some great and potent Beings, which are of a surly and malignant nature, and rejoyce to doe men all the mischief they can. Iamblichus, in his answer to myster. p. 105. Porphyrius concerning the Agyptian Mysteries, undertakes to give an account of these evil spirits or damons, and that from them the origin of evil in the world is; for thus he speaks (as he is translated by Ficinus) Si verum est quod de Idolis dicebamus, improbisque Dæmonibus, binc sane exoritur multiplex origo malorum. Simulant enim Deorum præsentiam, dæmonumque bonorum, ideoque cultorem suum jubent esse justum, ut ipsi videantur boni, sicut & Dii; quoniam vero natura sunt mali, rogati mala inferre, libenter inferunt, atque nobis ad injusta conducunt. Hi sunt omnino qui & in oraculis mentiuntur & fallunt, & turpia consolunt atque peragunt. By which we fee he acknowledgeth some spirits whose natures are wicked, and help men to doe evil; and that these very spirits may fometimes

sid. & Ofir. p. 361.

Iamblichus de

fometimes command that which is good, left they should be fufpected, to be what they are, of a wicked and malignant Nature, which only defign the ruin of men. By which we have a good account of whatever was commendable delivered by the Heathen oracles, which yet might come from the Devil still, by this

confession of Famblichus himself.

For the Devils appearing under the form of a Serpent, It is very probably conjectured, that from hence it was that the Prince of those who contended with Saturn, was by that Ænigmatical writer Pherecydes Cyrius called 'Oqioveus. Celsus who had so little skill in antiquity as to think that the History of Moses was as to many passages of it taken out of Heathen Fables, infifts on this very story of Ophioneus as the groundwork of that relation in Genesis concerning the Fall. But Origen well answers him, oea &v, el eynanov nuiv os opannoutions a or C'eςατα, η άποπεπλανημβροις θείων άνιγμάτββ, αὐτες σαρώς σφάλλεται; Orig. c. Celfum,

Sect. 18.

2.

μη κατανοήσας όπ τὰ πολλῷ ἐ μόνον 'Η εσκλεί]ε κὴ Φεςεκύδε αξγαιότερα, lib. 6. άλλα η Όμήςε, Μωύσέως γεάμματα είσημες τ πεςί πονης τέτε κ , δηπεσόρ 🕒 τ ερανίων λόρον. See therefore if this rare Antiquary who chargeth us with impiety in corrupting and altering the Heathen Fables, be not himself more justly chargeable with the same fault, not understanding the far greater antiquity of the writings of Moses, than either of Heraclitus, or Pherecycles, or Homer himself, which reports the story of that evil one which fell from Heaven, o & opis (mag' or of a rd Degenton DEJOVER ODIOVERS) al TO Subulu O TE ENBANDAVAI TE SELE SPARITE मैं ανθρωπου πιαυτά πνα αίνισεται, επαγγελία θε τη 🕒 κ μειζόνων απαπίσας το θηλύτερον χώΘ· ώς συνακολεθηκέναι λέγεται κ) ὁ ανής. For the Serpent (from which Ophioneus in Pherecydes derived bis name) which was the cause why man was cast forth of Paradise, doth intimate some such thing, while under a pretence of Divinity, and of a better condition, he first deceived the woman, and by her means the man. Calius Rhodiginus calls this Ophioneus Dæmonicum Serpentem, qui antesignanus fuc- Antig. lest. 1.2. rit agminis à Divinæ mentis placito deficientis. This Pherecy- Euleb de Prap, des, as appears by Eusebius, had much converse with the Phoe- Evang. l. 1. cap. nicians; where he purposely speaks concerning this Ophioneus: 10. Now the Phanicians, as Eusebius likewise tells us, worshiped their God under the Form of a Serpent; which probably might be occasioned by the Devils ambition and tyranny over men;

that would be worshipped among them in that very Form wherein he had done so much mischief to the world. It was very early in the world, when the Phanicians and Agyptians, did begin to adore their Gods under the Form of Serpents, for the beginning of it is attributed to Taautus by Eusebius, 7 wer & 48 Δράκον Ο φύσιν καὶ 7 όρεων αυτός έξεθείασεν ο Τααυ Ο καὶ μετ' αυτον αθθις Φοίνικές τε καὶ 'Αιχύπτιοι. Neither was this only among the Phanicians and Agyptians, but where-ever the Devil reigned, the Serpent was had in some peculiar veneration: thence Justin Martyr faith, De marti vous outevar mag μων Δεων όρις πίμβολον μέγα καὶ μυς μειον αναγράφεται the Serpent was the Symbol of adoration among them; and was the proper Indicium, or note of a consecrated place, as is evident by that of Persius.

Apolog. 2.

Satyr. 1.

Pinge duos angues; pueri, sacer est locus.

Heinf. Ari-Starch. p.18. ed. 1627.

Thence the Scholiast on Aristophanes on that place in Plutus, Tangarlu Ev No Sed nov? In Frew, observes nowas man rois newn Seaχού]es παρεήθευτο, so that where-ever any God or Hero was to be worshipped, there were Serpents painted to denote so much. So Orus Apollo faith of the Egyptians & Basov o Egy exalwsi Baois 1000 nevor megitide dai tois deois, they were wont to put the form of a golden Basilisk to their Gods. Heinsius conceives that the first worship of Apollo at Delphi was under the form of a Serpent, whither Nonnus tells us that Cadmus the Phanician went upon his first coming into Baotia, and from hence he derives the name Pytho from the Hebrew Ind which fignifies a Serpent. Ut non dubitandum sit, saith he, quin Pythius Apollo, hoc est, Spurcus ille spiritus, quem Hebræi Ob & Abaddon, Hellenista ad verbum. 'Απολλύωνα, cæteri 'Απίλλωνα dixerunt, sub hac forma qua miseriam bumano generi invexit, primo cultus sit in Græcia. And: which is further observable, the Devil was always ambitious to have the world think that the knowledge of good and evil was tocome by the Serpent still; thence the famous oracle of Apollo here at Delphi; thence came theuse of Serpents so much in Divination thence was fignifies to divine, from was a Serpent; and fo among the Greeks ow Cedus, is taken in the same sence, from owvos a Serpent. So that excellent Glossographer Hesychius; oswods.

Chap. 3. The Divine Authority of the Scriptures afferted.

483

όος δπιεικώς λέρρνται ες τάς μαν είας τές όφεις έχειν ές κ) οιωνώς έλερον. The Serpent was reckoned among the pedestria auspicia by the Romans; and Homer tells in that folemn divination concerning the Greeks fuccess at Troy there appears,

Seanor Em vota Sapono.

Iliad. B'.

Which faith Heinsius, is an exact description of the Nachas; whom they would have so called from the marks on his back, which they accurately observed in divination. Thus we see how careful the Devil was to advance his honour in the world under that Form, wherein he had deceived mankind

into fo much folly and mifery.

We meet with some remainders of man's being cast out of Paradise, upon his fall among the Heathers. Origen thinks that Plato by his converse with the fews in Agypt, did understand Origen. c. Celf. the History of the fall of man, which he after his way anigmatically describes in his Sympofiacks. Where he brings in Porus the God of plenty feating with the rest of the Gods; after supper Penia comes a begging to the door; Porus being drunk with Nectar, goes into Jupiter's garden, and there falls asleep; Penia observing it, steals to him, and by this deceit concrived by him. In this Fable of Plato, Origen takes notice what a near refemblance the garden of Jupiter hath to Paradise, Penia to the Serpent which circumvented Adam, and Porus to man who was deceived by the Serpent. Which he conceives more probable because of Plato his custom, The usγάλα έαυτο ομόμε δίγματα κεύξαι μέν διά τές πολλές εν το τέ mids supari, to wrap up those excellent things be knew under some fables because of the vulgar; for which he after speaks of his custom in altering and disguising what he had from the Fews, lest he should too much displease the fabulous Greeks, if he should adhere too close to the Fews, who were fo infamous among them. Some have thought the ftery of Paradise was preserved among the Heathens in the fable of the gardens of Adones which comes near that of Eden; but what footsteps may be gathered of the truth of Scripturehistory in the Heathen Mythology, will appear afterwards. Thus much here then may serve to have manifested the account which the Scripture gives of the Origin of evil by the

Qqq 2

fall

fall of man to be in its felf rational, and attested by the confent of such Persons who cannot be suspected of any partiality to the Scriptures.

Sect. 20.

We come now to consider the other, grand difficulty which concerns the Origin of evil, and the truth of Divine providence together. Which is, that if sin be the cause of misery, and there be a God which governs the world; whence comes it to pass, that the worst of men do so frequently escape sufferings, and the best do so commonly undergo them? This hath been in all ages of the world where men have been Philosophical and inquisitive, one of the great inquiries which the minds of men have been perplexed about. The true and full resolution of which question, depends much upon those grounds and principles which are discovered to us by Divine revelation in the Scriptures, concerning the grounds of God's patience towards wicked men, the nature and end of sufferings which good men are exercifed with. And certainly this should very much commend the Scriptures to all fober and inquisitive persons, that they contain in them the most clear and certain grounds of satisfaction to the minds of men, in such things wherein they are otherwise so irresolved? But of that afterwards? Our present business is to give an account of this difficulty from natural reason, which will be most satisfactorily done by the producing those grounds from which they have refolved this question, cur malis bene, & bonis male, who either have not had, or at least owned any thing of Divine revelation. I begin with that which doth concern the prosperity and impunity of wicked men, which men have with more confidence infifted on on this account, because all men could not but understand a general reason of sufferings, by reason there were none whose consciences could wholly acquit them of evil actions; but why perfons notoriously wicked should live in impunity, when others suffer, that they were unable to give an account of. And this was the common pretence of Atheism, as Simplicius tells us, συμβαίνει δέ πνας καὶ διά τὸ ἀναποδείκ]ως मारहर्णका, मुखा की हो पे वे ठेड़िया का कर है हो थे बात मेरेड की इस प्रहार का पता है है एवं प्रहेड देश έαυτοίς εὐοζονίας, ολιγωρείν ων έχκοι περλήψεων, και χώεαν διδέναι THE TERROSTA NEWIN.

Comment. in Epittet. c. 38. p. 223. Τολμῶ κατειτείν μήποτ' ἐκ εἰσὶν Θεοὶ Κακοὶ ઝુઽ ἐυτυχἔντες δππλήτ]ετί με.

It comes to pass, that such who have no grounded belief of a Deity, when they observe the miseries of good men, and the tranquility and felicity of had men, they regard not the common notions they have of a Deity, and are ready to cry out with the Tragadian (or rather of Aristophanes in his Plutus.)

Shall I not dare to say there are no Gods, When those do prosper who have injured me?

And it is observable, that the most of those who have taken occasion amongst the Heathens to question providence, have done it upon some remarkable injury which they have conceived to be done to themselves, and so we have ground to think that it was more passion and interest, than any clear reason which was the inducement to it. So Diagoras resolves to set up for an Atheist, because the perjured person was not struck dead in the place.

And Jason in Seneca when he sees Medea sly away after.

killing his children, cries out,

Testare nullos esse qua veheris Deos.

Thou tell'st the world there are no Gods that way Where thou dost sty.

And so Claudian, who largely reasons the case on both sides, for providence and against it, at last tells us what it was which was the main cause of his doubts, viz. the long impunity of Rusinus.

Abstulit hunc tandem Rufini pæna tumultum Absolvitque Deos.

Rufinus death doth clear the Gods, and set My mind at ease.

Tully 1. 3. de Nat. Deor.

But because some carry it higher, as Cotta in Tully, who reafons the most (as became a States-man) in reference to such persons who had been useful or burtful to Common-wealths. we may suppose there might be somewhat more of reason than Interest in such argumentations; and yet even in those discourses we may still find that the main original of this quarrel against providence, was an over-high esteem of themselves. that they thought they deserved better from the Gods, than to receive fuch injuries, or undergo fuch calamities. Therefore Cotta cries out on Providence, because such persons who were uleful to the Roman Common-wealth, were destroyed, when the enemies to it escaped, as though providence had been onely a Tutelar Deity of Rome, and had nothing to do elsewhere. Thence he cries out, if there be providence, why were the two Scipio's destroyed in Spain by the Carthaginians? Why was Maximus killed by Hannibal? Why were the Romans with Paulus ruined at Cannæ? Why did Regulus undergo fo much cruelty by the Carthaginians? Why did not Africanus die in his own bed? Nay, saith he, to come nearer home, why is my Uncle Rutilius in banishment? Why was my friend Drusus killed in his own house? On the other side, why did Marius die in peace, and the most cruel Cinna enjoy so long tranquillity? with many other instances of both forts. But this is it which I take notice of these for, because we hereby fee how common it is for men to question providence, more out of Passion and Interest, than out of any solid grounds of reafon.

Sect. 21.

Let us therefore appeal from persons who were particularly engaged by some private interest in those passages, from whence they would inferr that there was no providence, to such who stood by unconcerned, and made use of the free dictates of their reason in these cases. And such persons when they come to reason the case like Philosophers, and men out of passion, have given satisfactory and rational accounts why God in his wise providence may sometimes suffer the worst of men, to go on in impunity, when good men may go through the troubles of this world. As,

1. God forbears wicked men, to propound the example of his goodness to their imitation, to teach them not to revenge their injuries too greedily on each other. This Plutarch, in that ad-

mirable

mirable discourse of his on this subject, insists on as his first Plutarch de his

reason, why God doth not presently punish wicked men. For, qui sero punishith he out of Plato, God bath set forth himself in the midst of untur a numine. For p. 550. ed. Fr. the world for our imitation; and true vertue is nothing else but an imitation of the Divine nature. And therefore God, faith Plato, gave man the use of fight, that by the sight of the heavenly bodies, and the exact motions, which are in them, men should learn to sugation is terasquevou, that which was comely and orderly, and bate all disorderly and irregular motions; For as be excellently speaks : & γάς όξιν ε, π μείζον άνθοωπ Φ άπολαύειν Θεε πέρυκεν η το μιμήσει, κὶ διώξει το ἐνείνω καλών κὶ αραθών είς. assur na Hsadai. There is no greater benefit man can receive from God, than to attain true vertue by the imitation and pursuit of those perfections which are in him. And thence, saith Plutarch, God forbears to punish wicked men presently, not lest if he should punish them he might do that he would repent of afterwards, αλλ' ήμων το περί τὰς τιμωρίας θηριώδες κ riseov apaigov, but that he might take away the fury and violence of men in revenging their injuries on each other, that they should not do it in wrath and anger, with as much eagerness as they satisfie their hunger and thirst, whereby they do, Guina Sav τοις λελυπικόσιν, leap upon them who have injured them, with as much fury as a wild beast upon his prey; but men should learn to imitate την έκείνε σεσέπτα καὶ μελλησιν. God's gentleness and patience, whereby he gives the offender time to consider with himself what he hath done, before he doth feverely punish him. As Plato when his Boy had angred him, stood still a while without striking him, Ton Do public nord we, as he said, punishing himself first for his anger, before he would chastise the Boy for his fault; and Archytas when he saw how negligent his workmen had been, and began to be very angry with them, told them, in weite ori ogi-Couas view, It is well for you that I am angry with you Now faith Plutarch, if the consideration of this forbearance in men should tend to moderate mens heat and violence, how much more should the consideration of the lenity and patience of God; do it! η θείον ηγείθαι μίειον αρετής των περώπτα η την μεγαλοmidean and to account gentleness and forbearance to be an imitation of devine perfections. Now what can be more rational and agreeable to our apprehensions of a divine nature than:

than this is, that he should shew his goodness to all, and by his forbearance of fo many, teach the world more meekness and gentleness towards each other? For if offences rise by the quality of the person against whom they are committed, no injuries can be fo great in one man to another, as those affronts are men put upon God by their continual provocations of him: And if God then be of so infinite patience to forbear such who have offended him, what justice and reason is there, but that men should express more lenity and patience towards each other? So Hierocles excellently speaks, munital κ) ον τοις φιλίας μέτζοις τ Θεον, ος μισει μλο ελένα ανθρώπων, τδ της φιλανθεωτίας αραθόν κοινώ τω γένει σε τείνων. A good man imitates God in the measures of friendship, who hates no man, and extends his loving kindness to all mankind. Of which Seneca likewise somewhere speaks. Ne Deos quidem immortales ab bac tam effusa benignitate sacrilegi negligentesque eorum deterrent; utuntur natura sua, & cuncta, interque illa ipsos munerum suorum malos interpretes, juvant. The Divine Benignity extends its self to all, even to such as affront and dishonour them, and abuse the gifts they bestow upon them. And fince there is so much truth and reason in that of Plato τέλ Φ την άραθών το διμοιοθήναι Θεώ, It is the beight of goodness to be like to God, we see what excellent reason there is for that command of our Saviour, Love your enemies, and do good, and lend, hoping for nothing again; and your reward Luk. 6. 35,36. Shall be great, and re shall be the children of the highest; for he is kind unto the unthankful, and to the evil. Be ye there-

fore merciful, as your Father is merciful.

2. God forbears presently to punish wicked men, to give them time to become better. This the same excellent Moralist gives as another account of God's patience, that thereby he gives them χεόνον περς επανός θωσιν, a space to repent, as the Scripture call it. For men, faith Plutarch, in their punishments lock at nothing further than mere satisfying their revenge and malice, and that makes them purfue those that have offended them with so much rage and eagerness; but God, saith he, aims at the cure of thole who are not utterly incurable, to such he gives, μεταβαλέδαι χεόνον, a time to reform in Here he brings in the examples of fuch who were bad at first, and came afterwards to be changed from what they were; for which he instances

Plut arch. p. 551.

Rev. 2. 21.

instances in Cecrops, who was thence called Aiguins, because from a cruel severe Prince, he became gentle and mild; and fo Gelon and Hieron of Sicily, and Pifistratus the Son of Hippocrates, who, from being Usurpers, became excellent Princes. If Miltiades, faith he, had been cut off while he acted the part of a Tyrant, or Cimon in his Incest, or Themistocles in his Debaucheries, what had become of Marathon, Eurymedon, Dianium, by which the Arbenians got so great glory and liberty? and as he well observes, isi y & ai merana coots unego ingéquor, Great Spirits doe nothing mean; &S'& acya d' ozuma to opodego en au. Tais ni Seasherov, ann' en oang slavegolar mein eis to uchiquen ni na-Desnyos AJO ex Jew. That sharp and active spirit that is in them can never lie at rest by reason of its vigour, but they are tossed up and down, as it were in a Tempest, till they come to a settled composed life. But as the multitude of weeds argues the richness and softness of the ground, though for the sake of those weeds one not skill'd in husbandry would not account fuch ground worth looking after; so, faith he, anna mana's φαυλα σερεξανθοίσν αι μεγάλαι φύσις great spirits usually bring forth no commendable fruits at first; which we considering the danger and burtfulness of, are presently for cutting them down; but one that more wifely considers the generous nature which may lie under this ill fruit, waits time and leisure, till reason and age begin to master these head-strong passions. And therefore according to the prudent Law of the Agyptians, the woman with child must be reprieved till the time of her delivery.

3. God spares some wicked men from punishment to make them instruments of his justice in punishing others. Ένίοις β ἀμέλει κὰ κολας αις ἐπέζων πονης ῶν, είτε δημοκοίνοις, ἀπεχείσατο τὸ δαμόνιον, as Plutarch goes on, God spares some from punishment, that by them he might punish others. Which he supposeth to be the case of all Tyrants; and thereby Cotta's difficulty concerning Marius, Cinna, Sylla, and those other cruel and tyrannical persons, who had usurped authority among them, is clearly taken off: For Divine Providence might let those Trees grow from whence he intended to take his Rods to scourge others withall. God makes the same use of Tyrants (saith Plutarch) to Common-wealths, that Physicians do of the gall of a Hyæna and other hurtful creatures; which may be good

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for curing some dangerous diseases; so may the Tyrannical severity and harpness of such persons be continued i to roose dmannagai ni na Dagas, till the difeases of the political body be cured by these sharp medicines. Such a one was Phalaris to the Agrigentines, and Marius to the Romans: and the Oracle told the Sicyonians in express terms, μασιρνόμων δείδαι την πόλιν. the City wanted some severe discipline. Thence Totilas, when he found what strange success he had in his enterprises, called himself Fingellum Dei, and thought God raised him up on purpose to be a scourge for the sins of the world. And no doubt those strange passages of the Roman Common-wealth (which made Caso at least dispute providence, and fay, res divinas multum babere caliginis, when he saw Pompey successfull as long as he served his ambition, but presently overthrown when he flood for the Common-wealth) these things, I say, had a higher end than they looked at, which was to make both Pompey and Cæsar the instruments of Divine justice to punish the Romans for their lusts, ambition and cruelty, which were never greater than in that Age. Now then, if God must justly punish Offenders, why may he not spare some to make them his instruments in the punishing of others, especially since aster he hath used his rods, he may cast them into the fire too? as was evident in the instance of Casar, who, after all his flaughters and triumphs, was murthered in the Senate, and that by some who had been as active as any for him. And herein Divine Justice, both as to the punishment of the persons, and the means of it, hath been very remarkable in multitudes of instances, which every ones reading may afford him.

4 Therefore, another account why God may spare wicked men a great while, is, That divine providence might more remarkably be observed in the manner of their punishment afterwards. Plutarch tells us of Callippus, who was stabbid by his enemies with the same dagger with which he had killed Dion under a pretence of friendship. And when Mitius the Argive was killed in a tumult, afterwards, upon the day of a solemn shew, a brass Statue in the market place sell upon his murtherer, and killed him there. But most remarkable is the story of Belsus recorded by the same Author, who having killed his Father, and a long time concealed it, goes one night

to supper to some Friends, and while he was there, thrusts up his spear into a Swallow's nest, and pulls it down, and kills the young ones; his Friends asking him the reason of so strange an action: Οὐ ઝ (ἔρη) μῶ πάλαι καταμαρθυρέσιν αὖται Φω κὰς κὰς κατακούνος τὰ παθέρα. Do not you hear, faith he, how they falsty accuse me, and cry out, that I have killed my Father? Which being by the persons present carried to the King, and the truth of it sound out, he was executed for it. Such strange ways doth providence sometimes use to shew how

vigilant it is, even when we think it fleeps the most.

5. Though God spares the persons of wicked men, he doth not deferr their punishment, when the thoughts of their evil actions is the greatest torment to them; Maxima peccati pana est, peccasse, as Seneca speaks. Sin bears its own punishment along with it. Wickedness is Jewn ns Bis Junego's o'inles, the most exquisite contriver of misery, which fills the minds of those who commit it with continual consternations, anxieties and perplexities of mind. But as that often and deservedly cited Author on this subject, Plutarch tells us, most men are in this like Children, who when they behold malefactors in the Theatres in their cloth of gold, and purple robes, with their crowns on their heads dancing about, they admire them, and imagine them to be most happy men, till they see them lashed and beaten, and fire come out from their brave apparel; fo faith he, as long as men fee others in their pomp and grandeur, they think them far from punishment, till they behold their execution, which, faith he, is not fo much the entrance of their punishment, as the perfection of it. So that the longer the time of their lives is, the longer is the time of their punishment here; Est ynpasovles enonadnouv, ann' Exequouv nenal oution. they are not punished when they grow old, but they are grown old in punishments. Cannot we say a person is punished while he is in prison and hath his fetters upon him, till his execution comes? nor that one that hath drunk poison, is a dying while he walks about till the cold comes to his heart, and kills him? if we deny, faith he, that all the inquietudes, horrors and anxieties of mind which wicked men have, are no part of their punishment, we may as well lay that a fift which bath (wallowed the book is not taken, because he is not fryed, or cut in pieces. So it is with every wicked man, he hath swallowed the hook when he Rrr 2 hath hath committed an evil action (70 your f admias dome sease sinds Zessidone) and this conscience within him, as he expressent it,

Θύνν Β βολά Ο πέλαγ Ο ώς διασερβεί.

Ifa. 57. 21.

Which in the Prophet's expression is, the wicked are like a troubled Sea, which casts forth nothing but mire and dirt. As Apollodorus dreamt, that he was flead and boyled by the Scythians, and that his heart spake to him out of the Cauldron, 'Εγώ σει τέτων αλήα, I am the cause of all this. God deals by wicked men, as Caligula was wont to fay of those he commanded to be executed, ferit ut sentiant se mori, he so punishes them, as to make them sensible of their punishments. And as Tacitus speaks of cruel and wicked persons, quorum mentes si recludantur, possint aspici laniatus & ictus; quando ut corpora verberibus, ita sævitia, libidine, malis consultis animus dilaceretur. Wickedness is the only fury which continually baunts and lasbes those who delight in it, and leaves still behind it algori, ni cossessi mel In, loath some and terrible perturbations, fecret gripings of Conscience and self-condemning thoughts for their folly and wickedness; like Lysimachus, who for extreme thirst offered his Kingdom to the Geta to quench it, which when he had done, oso f suns nanias, os d' noorle &τω βεσχείαν, εξέξημαι βασιλείας τηλικαύτης. What a wretch was I (faith he) to lose such a Kingdom for so short a pleasure! And though wicked men be not fensible of the loss of a far more glorious Kingdom than this of Lysimachus, viz. that of Heaven, yet they cannot but be fensible how much they have lost that Kingdom which every good man hath in the tranquillity of his firit, and the command of his passions.

6. The time that God spares wicked men, is not so long as we think for. It is all one, as Plutarch saith, as if we should complain, that the malefactor was punished in the evening, and not in the morning; God's forbearance is but for a very little time, compared with his own duration. We measure God by the short hour-glass of our own time, when we are so ready to consine him to our measures. The time seems long to us, but it is as nothing in it self: 2 as a secs may describe the whole life of man compared with eternity is nothing. Besides, all this time God suffers

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wicked men to live here, he hath them under safe custody; he doth but let them take the air within the prison walls, or it may be they may play and sport themselves there, but there is no possibility of escaping out of the hands of Divine fustice.

7. God forbears wicked men here, because the time is to come wherein God intends to punish them. This is the highest vindication of Divine Providence as to the present impunity of wicked men in the world, because this is not the proper seafon for the open execution of Justice. There are but few in comparison whom Fustice causeth to be executed in the prison, of what are referved for the general Affizes; God referves them for a fair and open trial, for the greater vindication of his honour, and manifestation of his Justice to the world. And although God's judgments even in this world be sometimes so remarkable, that we cannot but see a hand of Providence in them, yet they are but few whom God doth fo remarkably punish here, to make us more firmly believe a day of Fudgment to come. Which though it be most clearly and fully revealed in Scripture, yet the Heathens themselves from mere reason have had such a persuasion of it, that they have given this as another great reason, why God did forbear to punish wicked men here, because he did reserve them for future punishment. For, as the same Moralist speaks in the same discourse concerning the Soul, aparitelas 28 dones adantis x71 # Plut. p. 561. Biov, όταν ή διαγωνίζελαι τότε πυγγάνι την σερσεκόνλων, this prefent life is the place of the foul's combate, which when it hath finished, it then receives according to its performance of it. And as he before speaks, Eis Bu niv @ o to see the megrocar dua καὶ Siawvin f ἀνδρωπίνης Δυχής βεβαιών, καὶ Δάτερον έκ έσιν ἀπολιπείν, αναιεξίλα Sarzegy. The same reason which confirms providence, doth likewife confirm the immortality of the foul; and if one be taken away, the other follows. Odon of the Luxi ut the τε τελευθήν, μάλλον είκος όζε καὶ τιμάς ἀποδιδέδαι καὶ τιμωρίας. And if the soul doth subsist after death, it stands to the greatest reason, that it should there receive either reward or punishment. Thus we fee how far natural light, and moral reason will carry men in the vindicating of Divine Providence, as to the present impunity of wicked men.

The other part which concerns the sufferings of good men is not of fo great difficulty, because there are none so good as not

Sect 22.

vid. c. I.

to have a mixture of evil in them, and as they have a mixture of evil, fo they have but a mixture of punishment; none lying under fo great miseries here, but withall they have some share in the comforts of this life. And therefore it is less wonder, that this part of Divine Providence which concerns the sufferings of good men, hath not wanted some among the Heathen Moralifts who have made it their defign to vindicate it; which fetting aside what Simplicius on Epictetus, and many others have done, is fully performed by Seneca in his tract on this very subject, cur bonis male sit, cum sit Providentia (as Muretus restores the title of that book) wherein these following accounts are given of it.

Senec. de Pro-

I. God brings them up as his children under sharp discipline for their future benefit. A good man in Seneca's language is, discipulus Dei, amulatorque, & vera progenies: which in the language of the Scripture, is, one taught of God, a follower of God, and one born of him. Now, faith he, Parens ille magnificus. virtutum non lenis exactor, sicut severi patres, durius educat. God, who is the great Father of good men, keeps them under discipline while under age, and by bardship fits them for the practice of vertue. Thence he bids us take notice of the different indulgence of Fathers and Mothers to their Children; the Father he hastens them to School, suffers them not to be idle on their play-days, makes them toil, and fometimes cry; the Mother the is all for holding them in her lap, keeping them out of the Sun, and from catching cold, would not willingly have them either cry or take pains. Patrium habet Deus adversus bonos animum, & illos fortius amat. God bears the indulgence of a Father towards his children, and loves them with greater severity.

2. Good men receive benefit by their sufferings; quicquid evenit in suum colorem trabit, saith Seneca of a good man, which in the language of the Apostle is, every thing works together for his good. The Sea loseth nothing, faith he, of its Caltness by the rivers running into it, neither doth a good man by the current of his sufferings. And of all benefits which he receives, that of the exercise and trial of his vertue and patience is most discernable. Marcet sine adversario virtus; as soon as Carthage was destroyed, Rome fell to Luxury: True wrestlers defire to have some to try their strength upon them; cui non industrio Chap. 3. The Divine Authority of the Scriptures afferted.

dustrio otium pana est? an active spirit hates idleness and cowardise; for etiamsi ceciderit, de genu pugnat, though his legs be

cut off, he will fight on his knees.

3. It redounds to God's honour, when good men bear up under fufferings. Ecce par Deo dignum vir fortis cum mala fortuna compositus. It is a spectacle God delights to see, a good man combate with calamities. God'doth in Seneca's phrase quosdam fastidio transire, passeth them by in a slight; an old wrestler scorns to contend with a coward, one who is vinci paratus, ready to yield up presently. Calamitates sub jugum mittere proprium magni viri est, it argues a noble spirit to be able to subdue miseries.

4. It tends to the trial and increase of their strength. Seneca highly extols that speech of the Philosopher Demetrius, Nihil infelicius eo cui nibil unquam evenit adversi; non licuit eni nilli fe experiri. He is the most unhappy man who never knew what mifery meant; for he could never know what he wasable to bear. And, as he faith; to pass ones life away sine morsu animi, without any trouble, it is ignorare rerum naturæ alteram partem, not to know what is upon the reverse of nature. Idem licet fecerint qui integri revertuntur ex acie, magis spectatur qui saucius redit. Though he that comes home found, might fight as well as he that is wounded; yet the wounded person hath the more pity, and is most cryed up for his valour. The Pilot is seen in a tempest, a Soldier in battel, and a good man in sufferings. God doth by such as Masters doe by Scholars, qui plus laboris ab his exigunt, quibus certior spes est: who set the best wits the bardest tasks.

5. God exercifeth good men with sufferings, to discover the indifferency of those things which men value so much in the world, when he denies them to good men. Blindness would be hatefull, if none were blind but such whose eyes were put out; and therefore Appius and Metellus were blind. Riches are no good things, therefore the worst as well as the best have them. Nullo modo magis potest Deus concupita traducere, quam si illa ad turpissimos defert, ab optimis abigit. God could not traduce or defame those things more which men desire so much, than by taking them away from the best of men, and giving

them to the worst.

6. That they might be examples to others of patience and constancy; For, as Seneca concludes, nati funt in exemplar, they are born to be patterns to others. If to these things we add what the Word of God discovers concerning the nature. grounds, and ends of afflictions, and that glory which shall be revealed, in comparison with which exceeding weight of glery, these light and momentany afflictions are not at all to be valued. then we have a clear and full vindication of Divine Providence, as to the sufferings of good men, as well as to the Impunity of fuch as are wicked. But however, from hence we fee how far the mere light of reason hath carried men in resolving these difficulties concerning God's Providence in the world, and what a rational account may be given of them, suppoling evil of punishment to arise from sin, and that there is a God in the world, who is ready to punish the wicked, and to reward the good: Which was the thing to be shewed.

CHAP.

CHAP. IV.

Of the Origin of Nations.

All mankind derived from Adam, if the Scriptures be true. The contrary supposition an introduction to Atheism. The truth of the History of the Flood. The possibility of an universal deluge proved. The Flood universal as to mankind, whether universal as to the Earth and Animals; no necessity of asserting either. Yet supposing the possibility of it demonstrated without creation of new waters. Of the Fountains of the deep. The proportion which the height of Mountains bears to the Diameter of the Earth. No Mountains much above three mile perpendicular. Of the Origin of Fountains. The opinion of Aristotle and others concerning it discussed. The true account of them from the vapours arising from the mass of subterraneous waters. Of the Capacity of the Ark for receiving the Animals, from Buteo and others. The truth of the deluge from the Testimony of Heathen Nations. Of the propagation of Nations from Noah's posterity. Of the beginning of the Assyrian Empire. The multiplication of mankind after the Flood. Of the Chronology of the LXX. Of the time between the Flood and Abraham, and the advantages of it. Of the pretence of fuch Nations, who called themselves Aborigines. A discourse concerning the first Plantation of Greece. the common opinion propounded and rejected. The Hellens not the first Inhabitants of Greece, but the Pelasgi. The large spread of them over the parts of Greece; Of their language different from the Greeks. Whence these Pelasgi came; that Phaleg was the Pelasgus of Greece, and the leader of that Colony, proved from Epiphanius: the language of the Pelasgi in Greece Oriental: thence an account given of the many Hebrew words in the Greek language, and the remainders of the Eastern languages in the Islands of Greece, both which not from the Phænicians as Bochartus thinks, but from the old Pelasgi. Of the ground of the affinity between the Jews and Lacedamonians. Of the peopling of America.

THE next thing we proceed to give a rational account of, in the History of the first ages of the World contained in Scripture, is the peopling of the World from Adam. Which

Sect. 1

Act. 17. 26.

is of great consequence for us to understand not only for the fatisfaction of our curiosity as to the true Origin of Nations. but also in order to our believing the truth of the Scriptures. and the universal effects of the fall of man. Neither of which can be sufficiently cleared without this. For as it is hard to conceive how the effects of man's fall should extend to all mankind, unless all mankind were propagated from Adam; so it is unconceivable how the account of things given in Scripture should be true, if there were persons existent in the World long before Adam was. Since the Scripture doth fo plainly affirm, that God hath made of one blood all Nations of men, for to dwell on the face of the earth; Some Greek copies read it IE Évos, leaving out as mal which the vulgar Latin follows: the Arabick version to explain both, reads it ex homine, or as De Dieu renders it ex Adamo uno, there being but the difference of one letter in the Eastern languages between and and the one denoting blood and the other man. But if we take it as our more ordinary copies read it & inos asual &, yet thereby it is plain, that the meaning is not that all mankind was made of the same uniform matter, as the Authour of the Pra-Adamites weakly imagined, (for by that reason, not only mankind but the whole World might be faid to be of inds asual @ of the fame blood, fince all things in the World were at first formed out of the same matter,) but alua is taken there in the fence in which it occurrs in the best Greek Authours, for the stock out of which men come: So Homer,

Odyff. T.

Εὶ ἐτεόν γ' ἐμὸς ἐωὶ κὰ αἵμα] Ο ἡμετέςςιο.

Thence those who are near relations, are called in Sophocles, it was alfual to the name of Confanguinity for nearness of relation; and Virgil useth fanguis in the same sence,

Trojano à sanguine duci.

So that the Apifles meaning is, that however men now are fo dispersed in their habitations, and differ so much in language and customs from each other, yet they all were originally of the same stock, and did derive their succession from that first man whom God created. Neither can it be conceived

on what account Adam in the Scripture is called the first man, 1 Cor. 15.45, and that he was made a living foul, and of the earth, earthly; 47. unless it were to denote that he was absolutely the first of his kind, and fo was to be the standard and measure of all that follows. And when our Saviour would reduce all things to the beginning, he instanceth in those words which were pronounced after Eve was formed, But from the beginning of the Mark 10, 6, 7, Creation God made them male and female; For this cause shall a man leave Father and Mother and cleave unto his wife. Now nothing can be more plain and easie than from hence to argue thus; those of whom those words were spoken, were the first male and female which were made in the beginning of the .Creation; but it is evident these words were spoken of Adam and Eve: And Adam said, this is now bone of my bone, and Gen. 2. 23,24. flesh of my flesh: therefore shall a man leave his Father and his Mother and shall cleave unto his Wife. If the Scriptures then of the New Testament be true, it is most plain and evident that all mankind is descended from Adam; and no less conspicuous is it from the history of the Creation as delivered by Moles.

For how necessary had it been for Moses, when he was giving an account of the Origin of things to have discovered by whom the World was first planted, if there had been any fuch plantation before Adam; but to fay that all the design of Moses was only to give an account of the Origin and History of the Fewish Nation, and that Adam was only the first of that stock, is manifestly ridiculous, it being so clear, that not only from Adam and Noah, but from Sem, Abraham, and Isaac, came other Nations besides that of Jews. And by the same reason that it is said, that Moses only speaks of the Origin of the Fewish Nation in the history of Adam, it may as well be faid that Mofes speaks only of the making of Canaan, and that part of the Heavens which was over it, when he describes the Creation of the World in the fix days work. For why may not the Earth in the second verse of Genesis be as well understood of the Land of Judwa, and the light and production of Animals and Vegetables referr only to that, as to understand it so in reference to the Flood, and in many other passages relating to those eldest times? But the Authour of that Hypothesis answers, That the first Chapter of Genesis may relate to

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Sect. 2.

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the true Origin of the world, and the first peopling of it, but in the second Moses begins to give an account of the first man and woman of the Fewish Nation. Very probable! but if this benot a putting asunder those which God hath joyned together, nothing is. For doth not Moses plainly at first give an account of the formation of things, in the first six days, and of his rest on the seventh? but how could he be said to have rested then from the works of Creation, if after this followed the formation of Adam and Eve in the second Chapter? Befides if the forming of man, mentioned, Gen. 2.7. be distinct from that mentioned, Gen. 1. 27. then by all parity of reason, the Generations of Heaven and Earth mentioned, Gen. 2. 4. must be distinct from the Creation of the Heaven and Earth, mentioned, Gen. 1. 1. And so if there were another Creation of Heaven and Earth belonging to the Fews in Gen. 2. we may likewise believe that there was a new Creation of man and woman in that Chapter distinct from that mentioned in the former. Again further, if there had been any fuch persons in the world before Adam, no doubt Adam himself was ignorant of them; or else it had been a false and ridiculous account which he gives of the name of his Wife TIT, because the mas in 720x the Mother of all living. Not of all living things, for that had been a more proper description of a Ceres, or Magna Mater, or Diana multimammia, of our Grand-mother the Earth; but certainly it extends to all of the kind, that all living creatures that are of humane nature came from her. So the Chaldee Paraphrast understands it, she was called Hava, because she was אנא דכל בני אנשא the Mother of all the Sons of men. And so the Arabick version, quia ipsa fuit mater omnis viventis rationalis. To which purpose our Learned Selden cites the version of the Mauritanian Jews, and the natur. & gent. Persick of Tawasius.

Selden de jure

Gen. 3. 20.

1.1. c. 5. p. 65.

But what-ever the credit or authority of these Versions be, this is most certain, that Adam had no reason at all to have given this name to his wife, as being the Mother of all living, if there had been any of mankind existing in the world from other mothers, which had been long before Eve was formed. So that we find it plain and clear, that if the report given of things in Scripture be true, the hypothesis of Pra-Adamites is undoubtedly false. And certainly who-ever seriously considers the the frequent reflexions on the Authority of the Scriptures which were cast by the Authour of that Fistion, and his endeavouring on all occasions to derogate from the miracles recorded in it, may easily suspect the design of that Authour was not to gain any credit to his opinion from those arguments from Scripture, which he makes shew of (which are pitifully weak and ridiculous,) but having by the help of fuch arguments made his opinion more plausible, his hope was that his opinion would in time undermine the Scriptures themselves. When he had made it appear that the account given in the Scriptures of the plantation of the World was unfatisfactory, fince there were men before Adam, which the Scriptures to please the Fewish Nation, take no notice of. So that after he had attempted to prostitute the Scriptures to his opinion, his next work had been to have turned them out of doors, as not of credit to be relied on by any when they were so common to every opinion. But how impious, abfurd and rude that attempt was upon the facred and inviolable authority of the Scriptures, hath been so fully discovered by his very many not unlearned adversaries, that it might seem needless so much as to have taken notice of fo weakly grounded, and infirmly proved an opinion, had it not thus far lain in my way in order to the clearing the true Origin of Nations according to the Scriptures: The main foundations of which fabulous opinion lying chiefly in the pretended antiquities of the Chaldaans, Ægyptians, and others, have been fully taken away in our first book, where our whole design was to manifest the want of credibility in those accounts of ancient times, which are delivered by Heathen Nations in opposition to the Scriptures. There is nothing at all in Scripture from the Creation of Adam to the Flood which feems to give any countenance to that figment, but only what may be easily resolved from the consideration of the great concifeness of the Mosaick History, in reporting that long interval of time which was between the fall of Adam, and the Flood; By means of which concifeness such things are reported as speedily done, because immediately succeeding in the story, which asked a very considerable time before they could be effected; and besides all things which were done before the Flood, being all quite obliterated by it, and all the numerous posterity of Adam being then destroyed (only Noah and his Family

Family excepted,) to what purpose had it been any further to have reported the passages before the Flood, otherwise than thereby to let us understand the certainty of the succession of persons from Adam, and such actions in those times which might be remarkable discoveries of God's providence and Man's wickedness in it, which being most apparent at first in Cain and his posterity, did by degrees so spread its self over the face of the then inhabited World, that the just God was thereby provoked to send a Deluge among them to sweep away the present inhabitants to make room for another Generation to succeed them.

Sect. 3.

This therefore we now come to consider, viz. The History of the Flood, and the certainty of the propagation of the World from the posterity of Noah after the Flood. I begin with the History of the Flood its felf, as to which, two things will be fufficient to demonstrate the truth of it. 1. If there be nothing in it repugnant to reason. 2. If we have sufficient evidence of the truth of it, from such who have not yet believed the Scriptures. There are only two things which feem questionable to reason concerning the Flood; the first, is, concerning the possibility of the Flood its self; the other is, concerning the capacity of the Ark for preserving all kinds of Animals. The only ground of questioning the possibility of such a Flood, as that is related in Scripture, hath been from hence, that some have supposed it impossible that all the water which is contained in the air, fuppoling it to fall down, should raise the surface of water upon the earth a foot and a half in height; fo that either new maters must be created to overflow the earth, or else there must be supposed a rarefaction of the Water contained in the Sea and all Rivers, fo that it must take up at least fifteen times the space that now it doth; but then they fay, if the Water had been thus rarified, it could neither have destroyed man nor beaft, neither could Noah's Ark have been born up by it any more than by liquid Air. To this therefore, I answer,

First, I cannot see any urgent necessity from the Scripture to assert, that the Flood did spread its self over all the surface of the earth. That all mankind (those in the Ark excepted) were destroyed by it, is most certain according to the Scriptures. When the occasion of the Flood is thus expressed, And God saw that the wickedness of man was great upon the

Gen. 6. 5, 7.

earth,

Chap.4. The Divine Authority of the Scriptures afferted.

Wathrused that every imagination of the thoughts of his heart whom I have created, from the face of the earth. It could not be then any particular deluge of fo small a Country as Palafine, which is here expressed, as some have ridiculously imagined; for we find an universal corruption in the earth mentioned as the cause; an universal threatning upon all men for this cause; and afterwards an universal destruction expressed, as the effects of this Flood. And all flesh died that moved upon Gen. 7. 21,23 the earth, and every man. And every living substance was de-Groved which was upon the face of the ground both man and cattel, and the creeping things, and the fowl of the Heaven, and they were destroyed from the Earth, and Noah only remained alive, and they that were with him in the Ark. So then it is evident that the Flood was universal as to mankind, but from thence follows no necessity at all of afferting the universality of it as to the Globe of the Earth, unless it be sufficiently proved that the whole Earth was peopled before the Flood: which I despair of ever seeing proved. And what reason can there be to extend the Flood beyond the occasion of it, which was the corruption of mankind? And it feems very strange that in so short an Interval, in comparison as that was from Adam to the Flood, according to the ordinary computation, viz. 1656 years, and not much above two thousand, according to the largest, the world should then be fully peopled, when in so much longer a space of time since the Flood to this day, the Earth is capable of receiving far more Inhabitants, than now it hath. The only probability then left for afferting the universality of the Flood, as to the Globe of the Earth, is from the destruction of all living creatures together with man; now though men might not have spread themselves over the whole surface of the Earth, yet beasts and creeping things might, which were all destroyed with the Flood: For it is said, That all flesh died that moved upon the Earth, both of fowl and of cattel, and of beast, and of every creeping thing, that creepeth upon the Earth, and every man. To what end should there be not only a note of universality added, but such a particular enumeration of the feveral kinds of beasts, creeping things, and fowls, if they were not all destroyed? To this I answer. I grant as far as the Flood extended, all these were destroyed;

but I fee no reason to extend the destruction of these beyond that compass and space of Earth where men in hard by, and could not but be concomitant with the destruction of mankind, but (the occasion of the deluge being the sin of man, who was punished in the beasts that were destroyed for his sake, as well as in himself) where the occasion was not, as where there were animals, and no men, there feems no necessity of extending the Flood thither. But to what end then it will be replied. Did God command Noah, with so much care to take of all kinds of beasts and birds, and creeping things into the Ark with him. if all these living creatures were not destroyed by the Flood? I answer, because all those things were destroyed where-ever the Flood was; suppose then the whole Continent of Asia was peopled before the Flood, which is as much as we may in reason Suppose, I say, all the living creatures in that Continent were all destroyed; or if we may suppose it to have extended over our whole Continent of the anciently known World; what reafon would there be that in the opposite part of the Globe, viz. America, which we suppose to be unpeopled then, all the living creatures should there be destroyed, because men had sinned in this? And would there not on this supposition have been a fufficient reason to preserve living creatures in the Ark for future propagation, when all other living creatures extant had been in fuch remote places as would not have been acceffible by them in many generations, and those beafts growing wild for want of Inhabitants, would not have proved prefently ferviceable for the use of men after the Flood? Which was certainly the main thing looked at in the prefervation of them in the Ark, that men might have all of them ready for their use presently after the Flood, which could not have been, had not the feveral kinds been preferved in the Ark, although we fuppose them not destroyed in all parts of the World.

All this proceeds on Supposition that animals were propagated much further in the World than men were, before the Which I confess seems very probable to me, on this account, because the production of animals is parallel in Genefis with that of Fishes, and both of them different from Man; Gen. 1. 20,21. For God faith, Let the Waters bring forth every moving creature that hath life; viz. Fish, and Fowl; and accordingly it is faid,

Sect. 4.

that

that the Waters brought forth abundantly every living creature after their kind, and every fowl after his kind. Accordingly in the production of beasts, we read, Let the earth bring forth the living creature after his kind, cattle, and creeping thing, and Ver. 24. beast of the earth after his kind, and it was so: But in the production of Man, it is said, Let us make Man in our own likeness, Ver. 26. From hence I observe this difference between the production of animals, and of man, that in the one God gave a prolifick power to the Earth and Waters for production of the several living creatures which came from them; fo that the seminal principles of them were contained in the matter out of which they were produced, which was otherwise in man, who was made by a peculiar hand of the great Creator himself, who thence is faid to have formed man of the dust of the ground. Now Gen. 2, 6, therefore although there were but one Male and Female of mankind at first, which had a special formation by God himfelf; yet there is no reason we should conceive it to be so as to the production of other living creatures, whether Fish, or Fowl, or Beasts; but the prolifick vertue being by God's power given to that material principle out of which they were formed, it may very well be supposed that many of the same kind were at first produced. For it seems very strange to imagine that in the whole Ocean there should be only two of a kind produced; but Fish and Fowl both arising from the water, we may have just reason to think, that the waters being separated before this prolifick vertue was communicated to the whole mass of Waters, might in the feveral parts of the Globe of the Earth. bring forth both Fish and Fowl after their kinds. The same I fay of the production of Animals in the fixth day's work, which are ranked into three forts, Cattle, Creeping-things, and Beafts of the Earth after their kinds; Now God faying, Let the Earth bring forth her living creatures, (and that after the waters had divided some parts of the Earth from other, so that there could be no passage for the Cattle, Creeping-things, and Beasts out of one part into another, without the help of Man,) it feems very probable that at least those parts of the Earth which were thus divided from each other, did bring forth these several living creatures after their kinds, which did after propagate in those parts without being brought thither by the help of man. If now this supposition be embraced, by it Ttt we

we presently clear our selves of many difficulties concerning the propagation of Animals in the World, and their conversation in the Ark, which many have been fo much to feek for fatisfaction in. As how the unknown kind of Serpents in Brafil. the flow-bellied creature of the Indies, and all those strange species of animals seen in the West-Indies should either come into the Ark of Noah, or be conveyed out of it into those Countries which are divided from that Continent where the Flood was by fo vast an Ocean on the one side, and at least so large a tract of Land on the other (supposing any passage out of one Continent into another, which yet hath not been difcovered.) Besides, some kind of Animals cannot live out of that particular Clime wherein they are; and there are many forts of animals discovered in America, and the adjoyning Islands, which have left no remainders of themselves in these parts of the World. And it feems very strange that these should propagate into those remote parts of the world from the place of the Flood, and leave none at all of their number behind them in those parts from whence they were propagated. These things at least make that opinion very probable which extends the production of Animals beyond that of mankind in the old World, and that the Flood though it destroyed all mankind, and every living creature within that compass wherein mankind inhabited, yet might not extend it felf to those parts, and the Animals therein, in which men had never inhabited. And by this means we need not make fo many miracles as some are fain to do about the Flood; and all those difficulties concerning the propagation of animals do of themfelves vanish and fall to the ground. This is the first way of resolving the difficulty concerning the possibility of the Flood, by afferting it not to have been over the whole Globe of the Earth, but only over those parts where mankind inhabited.

Secondly, Suppose the Flood to have been over the whole Globe of the Earth, yet there might have been water enough to have over whelmed it to the beight mentioned in Scripture. For which we are to consider that many causes concurred to the making of this Deluge; first, the Air was condensed into Clouds, and those fell down with continued force and violence, not breaking into drops, but all in a body (which Sir Walter World, 1.B. c.7. Rawleigh parallels with the spouts of the West-Indies) which

Hist. of the Sett. 6.

Sect. 5.

are

are thence called the Cataracts or Flood-gates of Heaven, God loosening (as he expresseth it) the power retentive which was in the Clouds, and so the waters must needs fall in abundance, according to the expression of Job, Behold he with-holdeth the Job 12. 15. waters, and they dry up, also he sendeth them out, and they overturn the earth. Now, I fay, although these maters falling down with fo much fury and violence, as well as in fo great abundance, might quickly destroy all living creatures; yet this was not all; for God who held in the Ocean within its bounds, whereby he faith to it, Thus far it shall go, and no further, might then give it commission to execute his justice upon the finfull World: and to all this, we have another cause of the Deluge, which was, That the Fountains of the great Deep were Gen. 7. 11. broken up. By which Vatablus, most probably understands, Immensam illam & profundam aquarum copiam quæ est subter terram: That vast body of Waters which lies in the bowels of the Earth: Now when all these Fountains were broken up, and the Waters within the Earth rush out with violence and impetuofity upon it, it must needs cause an inundation so great as that is mentioned in the Scripture. For as that judicious Historian Sir W. Rawleigh observes, Let us consider that the Earth had above 21000 Miles compass, the Diameter of the Earth according to that Circle 7000 Miles, and then from the Superficies to the Center 2500 Miles; take then the highest Mountain of the World, Cancasus, Taurus, Teneriff, or any other, and I do not find, faith he, that the highest exceeds thirty Miles in height: It is not then impossible, answering reason with reason, that all those Waters mixed within the Earth, 3500 Miles deep, should be able to cover the space of 30 Miles in height, which 30 Miles upright being found in the depths of the Earth 116 times; for the Fountains of the great Deep were broken, and the Waters drawn out of the bowels of the Earth. But then withall, faith he, if we consider the proportion which the Earth bears to the Air about it, we may easily understand the possibility of the Flood, without any new creation of waters; for supposing so much Air to be condenfed, and so turned into Water which doth encompass the Earth, it will not feem strange to men of judgment, yea but of ordinary understanding, that the Earth (God fo pleasing) was covered over with Waters, without any new Creation. Ttt 2

Ibid.

But

Tom. 2. op.

But this will yet appear more probable if the height of the highest Mountains doth bear no greater a proportion to the Diameter of the Earth, than of the 1670 part to the whole, supposing the Diameter of the Earth to be 8255 Miles, as P. Gassendus computes both. And it is more than probable. Phys. sett.3.1.1. that men have been exceedingly mistaken, as to the height of Mountains, which comes fo far short of what Sir Walter Rawleigh allows to them, that the highest Mountain in the World will not be found to be five direct Miles in height taking the Plut, in Ami- Xenagoras measured it and found it not to exceed a Mile and a lian. Plin. l. 2. half perpendicular and about 70 Paces. Much about the fame

c. 65.

Voll. in Pomp. p. 115, 60.

altitude of them from the plain they stand upon. Olympus whose height is so extolled by the Poets and ancient Greeks. that it is faid to exceed the Clouds; yet Plutarch tells us that height Pliny faith that Dic earchus found the Mountain Pelion to be. The Mount Athos is supposed of extraordinary height, because it casts its shadow into the Isle of Lemnos, which according to Pliny was 87 Miles, yet Gassendus allows it but two Miles in height; but Isaac Vossius in a learned discourse con-Melam, 1.5.c.2. cerning the height of Mountains in his notes on Pomponius Mela, doth not allow above 10 or 11 Furlongs at most to the height of Mount Athos. Caucasus by Ricciolus is said to be 51 Miles in height: Gaffendus allowing it to be higher than Athos or Olympus, yet conceives it not above three or four Miles at most; but Vossius will not yield it above two Miles perpendicular, for which he gives this very good reason; Polybius affirms, there is no Mountain in Greece which may not be ascended in a day's time, and makes the highest Mountain there not to exceed ten Furlongs; which, faith Vossius, it is scarce possible for any one to reach unless he be a Mountainer born; any other will scarce be able to ascend above six Furlongs perpendicular; for in the ascent of a Mountain every pace doth reach but to an hand-breadth, perpendicular; but if we do allow eight Furlongs to a day's afcent, yet thereby it will appear that the highest Mountains in the World are not above twenty-four Furlongs. in height, fince they may be ascended in three days time: and it is affirmed of the top of Mount Caucasus, that it may be ascended in less than the compass of three days, and therefore cannot be much above two Miles in height. Which may be the easier believed of any other Mountain, when that which is reputed

Chap.4. The Divine Authority of the Scriptures afferted.

reputed the highest of the World, viz. the Pike of Teneriff, which the Inhabitants call Pica de Terraria, may be ascended in that compass of time, viz. three days: for in the months of Fuly and August (which are the only months in which men can afcend it, because all other times of the year Snow lies upon it, although neither in the Isle of Teneriff nor any other of V. Varcnium the Canary-Islands there be Snow ever seen) the Inhabitants then Geogr. General. ascend to the top of it in three days time, which top of it is 3. not Pyramidal but plain, from whence they gather fome fulphureous stones, which are carried in great quantities into Spain. So that according to the proportion of eight Furlongs to a days journey, this Pike of Teneriff will not exceed the height of a German Mile perpendicular, as Varenius confesseth, than which he thinks likewise, that no Mountain in the World is higher. For what Pliny speaks of the Alps being fifty Miles in height, must be understood not perpendicular, but in regard of the obliquity of the ascent of it; so that he might account so much from the foot of the Alps to the top of them, and yet the Alps in a perpendicular line not come near the height of a German Mile. If then the highest Mountains do not exceed much above three Miles in height, (for the Spaniards themselves affirm, that those lofty Mountains of Peru, in comparison of which, they fay, the Alps are but like Cottages, may be afcended in four days compass,) we see from hence then far greater probability, how the Waters in the time of the general Flood might over-top the highest Mountains.

Especially if it be made evident that there is so great an Abysse of subterraneous waters, that the breaking open of the Fountains of it may so much encrease the inundation arising from the Clouds, and from the breaking in of the Ocean upon the main Land. And that there is such a mass of waters in the body of the Earth, is evident from the Origin of Fountains; for the opinion of Aristotle imputing them to the condensation of Air in the caverns of the Earth, and that of other Philosophers ascribing them to the fall of rain-water received into such Cisterns in the Earth which are capable of receiving it, are both equally unsatinfactory, unless we suppose a mass of waters in the bowels of the Earth, which may be as the common stock to supply those Fountains with. For it is very hard, conceiving how mere Air should be so far condensed, as to cause

Sect. 6.

not only fuch a number of Fountains, but so great a quantity of water as runs into the Sea by those Rivers which come from them, (as the River Volga is supposed to empty so much water in a years time into the Caspian Sea, as might suffice to cover the whole Earth,) by which likewise it is most evident that there must be some subterranean passages in the Sea, or else of necessity, by that abundance of water which continually runs into it from the Rivers, it would over-flow and drown the World. And from this multitude of waters which comes from Fountains, it is likewise evident, that the Origin of Fountains cannot be merely from fuch water which falls from the Clouds, which would never fuffice to maintain fo full and uninterrupted a fream as many Fountains have: Especially if that be true which fome affert, that rain-water doth never moisten the Earth above ten foot deep, for of far greater profundity many Fountains are. And besides, the rain-water runs most upon the surface of the Earth, and so doth rather swell the Rivers which thereby run with greater force in their passage to the Ocean, and doth not lodge it felf prefently in the Earth, especially if it descends in a greater quantity, which alone is able to fill fuch Cifterns supposed to be in the Earth, especially in Mountains, which may keep a stream continually running. Although therefore we may acknowledge that the fall of rain may much conduce to the over-flowing and continuance of Fountains, as is evident by the greater force of Springs after continued rains, and by the decay of many of them in hot and dry weather, (which yet I had rather impute to the Sun's exhaling by his continued heat those moist vapours in the Earth, which should continually supply the Springs, than merely to the want of Rain,) and by the rife of most great Rivers from fuch Fountains which came from the foot of Mountains; where the ground is supposed to be of so hard and consistent a substance, as stone, or chalk, or something of like nature, which might help to the conservation of water there, from whence it after ran in streams to the Ocean, (which was the great ar-V. G. Mend. vit. gument of the famous Peireskius for this opinion,) although I fay, these things may argue thus far, that rain-water doth much conduce to the preservation of Springs, yet it cannot give a fufficient account of the Origin of them: Which with the greatest reason and probability is imputed to those subter-

Peireskiz, l. 3. p. 292.

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raneous maters which pass up and down through the bowels of the Earth. Some have fansied the Earth to be as one great Animal, whose subterraneous passages where like veins in the body, which received mater out of the Sea, as the veins do blood out of the Liver; and that there are some kind of hot vapours in the Earth which supply the place of vital spirits, which are diffused up and down the body through the arteries. And that as in an animal, there are some parts which upon the least prick do send forth blood, and others are more callous where the incision must be deeper before any blood appears; so it is in the Earth, when it is opened in a right vein we find presently a Spring of water; but if we chance to hit on a wrong place, we go deep and may find none; not that Water is wanting, but we have not hit on the veins through which it runs. And thence as the blood with equal freedom and velocity ascends into the head as it runs into the legs, because it is equally dispersed into all the parts from the center of it; so in the body of the Earth it is as natural for the mater to ascend into the tops of Mountains, as it is to fall down into the center of the Earth. And that it is no more wonder to fee Springs issue out of Mountains, than it is to fee a man bleed in the veins of his fore-head when he is let blood there. So in all places of the Earth the parts of it are not disposed for apertion; for some of them are so hard and compast, that there feems to be no passage through them, (which is the most probable reason, why there is no rain neither in those places, because there is no such exsudation of those moist vapours through the surface of the Earth, which may yield matter for rain, as it is in many of the fandy places of Africa; but usually mountainous Countries have more large, and as it were Temple-veins through which the moist vapours have a free and open passage, and thence there are not only more frequent Springs there, but Clouds and Rains too.) Now if this account of the Origin of Springs in the Earth be as rational as it is ingenious and handsome, (and there is not much can be faid against it, but only that then all Fountains should be falt as the water is from whence they come,) then we easily understand how the Earth might be over-flowed in the universal Deluge; for then the Fountains of the deep were broken up, or there was an univerfal opening of the veins of the Earth, whereby

all the water contained in them would prefently run upon the furface of the Earth, and must needs according to its proportion advance its felf to a confiderable height. But because the falving the difference of the water in Springs from what it is in the Sea is so considerable a Phanomenon in our present case. I therefore rather take this following as the most rational account of the Origin of Fountains, viz. That there are great cavities in the Earth, which are capable of receiving a confiderable quantity of water, which continually runs into them from the Sea, (which as it continually receives fresh supplies from the Rivers which empty themselves into it, so it dispatcheth away a like quantity thorow those spungy parts of the Earth under the Ocean, which are most apt to suck in and convey away the furplusage of water,) so that by this means the Sea never swells by the water conveyed into it by the Rivers, there being as continual a circulation in the body of the Earth of the water which passeth out of the Ocean into the Subterraneous Caverns, and from thence to the Mountains, and thence into the Sea again; as there is a circulation of blood in man's body from the heart by the arteries into the exteriour parts, and returning back again by the veins into the heart. According to which we may imagine fuch a place in the heart of the Earth like Plato's Baratrum,

Τηλε μαλ' ηχι βάθυσον ίσο χθονός όξι βέρετεον.

As Plato in his Phædrus describes it out of Homer, a long and deep subterraneous cavity. As Norto to have a vipe sed to the ratures in the Rivers at last flow, and from which they again disperse themselves abroad. Now this Cavity of the Earth thus fill'd with water, supplies the place of the heart in the body of the Earth, from which all those several aquæducts which are in the Earth have their continual supply; but that which makes those passages of water which we call springs and Fountains properly, I suppose, is thus generated; from those Cavities fill'd with water in the Earth by reason of the hot streams which are in the body of the Earth, there are continually rising some vapours or little particles of water, which are dissipated from each other by the heat, by reason of which they attain a greater

greater celerity of motion, and so pass through the inner pores of the Earth till they come near the superficies of it. Which when they have approached to, they are beat back again by the cold, which environs the surface of the Earth, or at least are so arrested by the cold and condensed by it, that they lose the form of vapours, and become perfect water again. Which water being now more gross, than while it was a mere vapour, cannot descend again through the same pores through which it ascended before, because these are not now capable of receiving it: And therefore it seeks out some wider passages near the surface of the Earth, by which means it moves in an oblique manner, and is ready to embrace any other vapours which are arrested in the same manner; now when these are grown to a confiderable body in the surface of a Mountain, or a Plain, and find a vent fit for them, there appears a proper Fountain, whose freams are still maintained by the same condensation of vapours, which when they are once come abroad, are in continual motion whereby Rivers are made, which are still finding a passage through the declivity of the surface of the Earth, whereby they may return to the Ocean again. Now according to this account, that grand Phanomenon of the freshness of Fountain-water, when the water of the Sea is falt, whence it originally comes, is fufficiently refolved. For mere transcolation may by degrees take away that which the Chymists call the fixed falt; and for the Volatile falt of it (which being a more spiritous thing, is not removable by distillation, and so neither can it be by transcolation,) yet such an evaporation as that mentioned, may serve to do it, because it is evident that fresh water will fall from the clouds which hath rifen from those vapours which have come out of the Sea; and besides these vapours or small particles of water in their passage thorow the Earth (especially when they come near the surface of it) do incorporate with other sweet vapours, as those which come from rain and others, by which means they infensibly lose their former acidity and sharpness. But those Fountains which do retain their former faltness, as there are many such in the world, may very probably be supposed not to have come from those vapours condensed, but to be a kind of a breaking of vein in which the falt water was conveyed up and down the body of the Earth. Now then, confidering that mass of wa-II u u

ters and multitude of vapours arising thence which are in the Earth, how easie is it for us to understand what the breaking open the Fountains of the deep means in Scripture, and how by that means together with the falling down of the Catarasts of the Clouds, and the letting loose of the Ocean, the whole Earth might be over-spread with an universal deluge? The possibility of which was the thing to be shewed.

SeEt. 7.

The next thing we come to concerning the Flood, is, the capacity of the Ark for receiving the feveral animals which were to propagate the world afterwards. Concerning which, two things are necessary to be understood, what the measure of the Ark was, and what the number of animals contained in it. The measure of the Ark must be determined by the proportion of the *cubit*, which there is no reason at all to suppose either with Origen and others to have been the Geometrical cubit, which contains fix ordinary cubits or nine feet, both because we find no mention at all of any fuch cubit in Scripture, and because the Fabrick of the Ark would have been of too vast a proportion. Neither yet is it probable, which Sir W. Rawleigh supposeth, that this cubit must be of a proportion as much exceeding ours, as the stature of a Gyant doth ours, both because there is no certain evidence, either from Scripture or Reafon, that the proportion of men then did generally exceed what is now; and besides, this tends not in the least to make the thing more plain. For according to that proportion, we must then have imagined beafts to have been as well as men; for the horse must have been proportionably as great to have been serviceable to men of that stature, and so the Animals would have taken up as much more room in the Ark as the cubit is supposed to be bigger. I suppose then that Moses speaks of the cubit mot in use in his own time (for he writ so that they for whose use he writ, might be easily able to understand him,) now this cubit by the confent of writers contained a foot and a half in length; according to which proportion, supposing the Ark by Moses his description to have 300 cubits in length, 50 in breadth, and 20 in height, the whole capacity of the Ark, according to the computation of Joh. Buteo comes to 450000 folid cubits. For the length of 200 cubits being multiplied into the breadth of fifty cubits, and the product by the height of 30 cubits makes the whole Concavity 450000. Which Mat-

Gen. 6. 15.

Buteo de arca Noe. p. 93.

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thans Hostus reducing to the German measure, makes the longi- Hostus de fatude of the Ark to be 31 perches, 4 cubits, 5 fingers; the la-brica Arca titude 5 perches, 2 cubits and 11 fingers; the altitude 3 perches Noah. 1h. 66. 1 cubit, 9 fingers; allowing to every perch 15 Roman feet. So that if we take a perch to contain 10 Hebrew cubits, which exceeds the former 11 fingers, the whole capacity of the Ark will be 450 cubical perches. And as he faith, Hujusmodi sane ædificii amplitudo capacissima est, & quamlibet magno animantium numero hand dubie sufficere potuit, the Ark of so large a capacity might easily contain the several kinds of animals in it. Which will be eafily understood, if according to our former Supposition, only the animals of the inhabited part of the world were preserved in the Ark; but admitting that all kinds of animals were there, there would be room enough for them, and for provision for them. For which Sir W. Rawleigh gives a prudent caution, that men ought not to take animals of a mixt nature, as Mules and Hyana's, nor such as differ in size and shape from each other, as the Cat of Europe, and Ownce of India, into the several species of animals. Sir W. Rawleigh following Buteo reckons 89, or least any be omitted, a 100 feveral kinds of beafts, and undertakes to demonstrate from a triple proportion of all beasts to the Ox, Wolf, and Sheep, that there was sufficient capacity for them in the Ark. Hostus allows a 150 several kinds of animals, yet questions not the capacity of the Ark. But these things are so particularly made out by those learned Authors, especially by Buteo, that I shall rather referr the Reader for further farisfaction to the Authors themselves, than take the pains to transcribe them.

I come now therefore to the evidence of the truth and certainty of this universal deluge, of which we have most clear and concurring Testimonies of most ancient Nations of the world. For which purpose Grotius and others have at V. Grot. Annot. large produced the testimony of Berosus the Chaldean out of Fo- in l. s. de Verit. fephus, concerning the Flood and the Ark in which Noah was relig. Christ. preserved, of Abidenus out of Cyril and Eusebius concerning Chronolog. dif-Xisuthrus, or Noah's sending out of the birds to see if the Flood sert. 4. c. 2. 6 3. were assuaged, and of Alexander Polyhistor concerning the pre-Bochar. Geogr. servation of animals in the Ark, of Plutarch concerning the fact. 1. c. 4. fending out of the Dove, of Lucian de Dea Syria concerning the vie. Dei, l. 18. whole story, and so of Molon and Nicolaus Damascenus. Besides c. 12. & ibid.

it Lud. Viv.

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ed. 2. Scaliger.

If. Voff. epift. 409. Martin. hift. Sinic. 1.1. p. 12.

mory of Noah was preserved under the Fable of Oannes, which had part of a filb, and part of a man, as is evident from the Enfeb. Chr. 2.5. fragments of Apollodorus, Abydenus, and Alexander Polyhistor. preserved in Eusebius his Greek Chronica; among the Chineses under the name of Puoncuus, who by them is faid to have escaped alone with his Family out of the universal Deluge, saith Isaac Vossius, who supposeth Pu or Pi to be only a Prefix to ad Colvium, p. the name, and so that Puoncuus, is the same with & Naxo-Martinius tells us, de diluvio multa est apud Sinicos Scriptores mentio, that the ancient Writers of the Sinick History speak Joh. de Laet. de much of the Flood. Johannes de Laet tells out of Lescharboorig gent. Ame- two how constant the tradition of the Flood is among the Inrican 1.1.p.115. dians, both in New France, Peru, and other parts. This being therefore fo fully attested by the evident and apparent confent of fo many Writers and Historians, which did not own the authority of the Scriptures, I shall suppose this sufficiently proved, and proceed to the main thing which concerns the Origin of Nations, which is, the certainty of the propagation of mankind from the posterity of Noah. Of which there is this firong and convincing evidence, that in all that account which the Scripture gives of the propagation of Nations from the Sons of Noah, there is some remainder in the History of that Nation to justifie the reason of the imposition of the name from the names of the Nations themselves, which have preserved the original name of their Founder in their own, as the Medes from Madai; the Thracians from Thiras; the Ionians from 7a-Gro. Annot. ad van; the Sidonians from Sidon; the Philistins from Polesthim: the Arcaans, Aradians, Elymaans, Assyrians, Lydians, from Arki, Arad, Elam, Assur and Lud, and many others produced by Grotius, Montanus, Junius, and especially Bochartus, who with admirable industry and learning hath cleared all this part Geogr. Sacr.p.1. of facred History, which concerns the reason of the imposition of the names of the people which were propagated from the posterity of Noah, and given a full and satisfactory account of the feveral places where the posterity of Noah seated themselves after the deluge. Instead of that therefore, I shall consider the pretences which can be brought against it, which are chiefly these three. 1. That the Chaldean Empire seems to

have greater antiquity than can be attributed to it by the Hi-

1. 1. de Verit. Ari. Montan. Phaleg. Junius in Gen. 10. Boshart.

Rory of Moses. 2. That the most learned Heathen Nations pretend to be felf-originated, and that they came not from any other Country. 3. That no certain account is given from

whence America should be peopled.

1. The History of the Asyrian Empire seems inconsistent with the propagation of the world from the fons of Noah; for the reign of Ninus and Semiramis is placed by many Chronologers within the first Century after the Flood, which seems a manifest inconsistency with the propagation of mankind from the fons of Noah; for it feems utterly impossible that the foundations of fo great an Empire should be laid in so small a compass of time by the posterity of three persons; and besides, Ninus and Semiramis were not the first who began the Asyrian Empire; for Belus not only reigned fifty five years before Ninus, but according to the Chaldean Antiquities from Evechous, who they fay first reigned among them, are reckoned 495 years. But admit that the beginning of the Affrian Empire be placed fo low as Petavius and other Chronologers would have Petav. de dost. it, viz. in the year after the Flood, 153, yet the difficulty temp. 1.9.c. 14. is only fomewhat abated, but not removed; for it feems yet Tom. 2. unconceivable that from three persons in 150 years, such multitudes should spring, as to make so large an Empire as that of Ninus, and that within an hundred years after the Flood there should be such vast multitudes for the building the Tower of Babel and dispersion up and down the world, so that according to the Hebrew computation in the compass of 300 years, viz. about Abraham's time, the world was so fully peopled, that we read of feveral Kings encountring one another, by which it is evident the world had been peopled some time before, or else there could not have been such potent Kings as some of them were at that time. This being the grand difficulty, to it I answer these things.

1. There is no fuch certainty of the beginning of the Allyrian Empire, as for the fake of that, to question the truth of the propagation of the world by the fons of Noah. I have already largely manifested the want of credibility in the Chronology of the ancient Chaldeans, and that we have no certain grounds to rely upon in reference to it. Especially as to these feven first Babylonian Kings, which are cited out of Africanus, by Eusebius, and Georgius Syncellus, viz. Evechous, Chomasbo-

Sect. 9.

lus, Porus, Nechubes, Abius, Oniballus, Chinzirus, who are faid to reign 225 years two months; and alike fabulous, I suppose. is the other Dynasty of six Arabian Kings, whose Empire is faid to have stood 215 years to the time of Belus, who expelled the Arabians, and took the power to himself; And it is much more agreeable to reason to reject these two Dynafives, which have no record of them left in any History of the Assyrian Empire, but only in Berosus, whose authority in this case hath been discussed already, than to follow our late excellent Primate of Armagh, who punctually fets down the reign of the Kings of these two Dynastyes, but cuts off at least eight Ages in the time of the Asserian Empire from Ninus to Sardanapalus, which time he confines to 496 years, and placeth Ninus in the 2737 year of the World, according to the Hebrew computation, and so to live in the time of the Judges, and be contemporary with Deborah: Which he builds only on a place in Herodotus, which relates not to the time between Ninias and Sardanapalus, but to the time of the defection of the Medes from the Assyrian Empire, as Isaac Vossius hath already Hornium, c. 10. shewed. We cannot then find any certainty in the beginning of the Assyrian Empire, which may give us cause to question the propagation of the world from the posterity of Noah.

Castigat. adv. Gen. 9. 1.

User. Annales Vet. Teft. A.M.

2737.

2. We have reason to think that there was a more than ordinary multiplication of the world from the fons of Noah after the Flood. For as God had before punished the world by destroying mankind in it by an extraordinary manner; so af-

ter the Flood, he doth in a particular manner bless Noah and his fons, and faid unto them, Be fruitfull and multiply, and replenish the earth, which may well be thought to have then had an extraordinary effect. Several ways have been attempted by learned men to make appear, to what a vast number the posterity of Noah would increase in the space of two or three hundred years after the Flood. Petavius supposeth that the posterity of Noah might beget children at seventeen, and that each of Noah's fons might have eight children in the eighth year after the Flood, and that every one of these eight might beget eight more; by this means in onely one Family, as of Ja-

phet in the year after the Flood 238, he makes a Diagramme confisting of almost an innumerable company of men. Johannes

Temporarius, as our most learned Primate tells us, takes this

"et av. de dofrin. temp 1.9. 1. 14.

Ter. Chronol. ib. . r. 6. 5.

way, that all of the posterity of Noah, when they attained twenty years of Age, had every year twins, on which supposition by Arithmetical progression, he undertakes to make it appear, that in the 102 year after the Flood, there would be of males and females 1554420, but taking away the one half, because of the groundless supposition of twins, yet then in that time there would be 388605 males besides females. Others Suppose that each of the sons of Noah had ten sons, and by that proportion, in few Generations it would amount to many thousands within a Century. Others insist on the parallel between the multiplication of the children of Ifrael in Agypt; that if from 72 men in the space of 215 years there are procreated 600000, how many will be born of three men in the fpace of an hundred years? some have faid above 23000, but with what fuccess in their Arithmetick, I shall not determine, Horn, defent, But whether all or any of these ways be sufficient, and satis- differt. de atat. factory, we have yet cause to believe that there was a more mundi, c. 26. than ordinary multiplication in the posterity of Noah after the Flood.

2. If we embrace the account of those Copies, which the Septuagint followed in their version, all this difficulty is then ceased. For that account doth very much inlarge the times, and makes almost a thousand years between the Flood and Abraham, by which means there will be sufficient space given for the propagation of mankind, the building the Tower of Babel, the dispersion of Nations, the founding the Assyrian Empire, the plantation of Agypt, China, and other places, all which feem to have been in that time, and to concurr with that computation, as well as Fosephus doth, and the whole Primitive Church before Hierom, which certainly ought in no case to be difregarded.

The whole controversie concerning this part of the Chronology of the World comes at last to this, Whether it be more probable that the Fews who lived under the second Temple (who then were the Trustees to whom were committed the Oracles of God) whom the LXX. followed in their version, had the true reading, or the Talmudick Jews after their difpersion and banishment from their Country, when they were discarded by God himself from being his people, when he broke up bouse among them at the destruction of Ferusalem and the

Temple.

S. 58, 63, 60. Isaac Vossius de atat. mund.

c. I. Sect. 7.

Temple. But if the Reader defire further satisfaction concerning this difference of this Chronology of the LXX. from that of the present Hebrew Copies, he may consult the learned differ-Proleg. ad bibl. tation of the late learned Bishop of Chester upon the LXX. Polyglot. cap.9. and the latter discourses of Isaac Vossius on this subject. Setting aside then the controversie between the present Hebrew LXX Interp. & Copies and the LXX. in point of integrity and incorruption which I meddle not with, I cannot but subscribe to the judgment of our judicious Historian, Sir W. Rawleigh: That if we History of the look over all and do not hastily satisfie our understanding with the World, p. 1. b. 2. first things offered, and thereby being satiated do sothfully and drowfily fit down, we shall find it more agreeable rather to follow the reckoning of the LXX. who according to some editions make it above 1072 years between the Flood and Abraham's Birth, than to take away any part of those 352 years given. For if we advisedly consider the state and countenance of the World, such as it was in Abraham's time, yea before Abraham was born, we shall find that it were very ill done of us by following opinion without the guide of reason, to pare the time over deeply between Abraham and the Flood; because in cutting them too near the quick, the reputation of the whole story might perchance bleed thereby, were not the Testimony of the Scriptures supream, so as no objection can approach it; And that we did not follow withall this precept of St. Austin, that wheresoever any one place in the Scriptures may be conceived disagreeing to the whole, the same is by ignorance of mis interpretation understood. For in Abraham's time all the then known parts of the world were peopled: all Regions and Countries had their Kings. Ægypt had many magnificent Cities, and so had Palastine and all bordering Countries; yea all that part of the world besides as far as India: and those not built with sticks, but of hemn stones, and defended with Walls and Rampiers, which magnificence needed a parent of more antiquity than those other men have supposed. And therefore where the Scriptures are plainest and best agreeing with reason and nature, to what end should we labour to beget doubts and scruples, or draw all things into wonders and marvels? giving also strength thereby to common cavillers, and to those men's apish brains who only bend their wits to find impossibilities and monsters in the story of the world and mankind Thus far that excellent Historian, whose words deserve consideration. Thus much for the first objection.

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The second is, From the great pretence of several Nations that Seft. 10. they were self-originated, or came not from any other place. This was the pretence of the Agyptians, Gracians, ancient Inhabitants of Italy, and others. But how little reason we have to give credit to these pretences, will appear on these accounts. I. The impossibility in nature that mankind should be produced in fuch a way as they imagined, which we have manifested already in our discourse of the Origin of the Universe. 2. That the Nations which pretended this, were never able to give fufficient evidence of it to any other Nation which demanded it; which is manifest by their want of any certain records of their ancient times, which is fully proved in our discourse in the first book of the want of credibility in Heathen Histories. 3. The only probable reason, which induced these Nations to make themselves Aborigines, was, because they supposed themselves to be the first Inhabitants of the Countries they lived in, which although I may allow to the Agyptians, and some other ancient Nations, yet I cannot do it to the Hellens or Greeks, who most vainly and arrogantly pretended to it. Which because it may give more light into the greatest antiquities of Greece, and some other Nations than hath been yet discovered or taken notice of, and because it may further tend to clear the truth of the Scriptures, as to the Origin of Nations, I shall more particularly enquire into the first Plantation of Greece. That it was first inhabited by some of Noah's posterity, is out of question with all those who preferr the most ancient and undoubted records of Scripture before the fabulous impostures of men's brains. But by whose immediate posterity the Country of Greece was first inhabited, is not yet so clear as it hath been generally prefumed to be, by most who had rather follow the dictates of others, than spend time in such enquiries themselves: Which yet certainly are so far from being unworthy men's labour and industry, that nothing tends more clearly to advance the truth of Scripture-history, than the reconciling the antiquities of the elder Nations to what we find delivered of the plantation of the world from the posterity of Noah. As to this particular therefore of the first plantation of Greece, I shall first propound the opinion generally embraced among learned men, and then shew how far it is defective, and what other more true account may be given of it. It is evident from Mo-

ses, Gen. 10. 5. that the posterity of Faphet took possession of the Isles of the Gentiles, i. e. according to the Hebrew Idion. not only fuch as are properly fo called, but all those Countries which lay much upon the Sea, being at any distance from Palastine, especially such as lay between the Ocean and Mediterranean Sea; and fo both Greece and Italy come under the name of the Isles of the Gentiles. Among the sons of Faphet none is conceived fo probable to have first peopled Greece, as he whose name was preserved among the Inhabitants of Greece with very little alteration. And so as the Medes from Madai, the Assyrians from Assur, the Thracians from Thiras, by the like Analogy the Ionians from Favan. From which it is observable, that although among the Greeks theinselves, the Ionians were but as one division of that people which inhabited Greece, vet other Nations comprehended all under the name of Ionians. For which we have sufficient evidence from Hesychius and the Helych. v. "Iav- Scholiaft on Aristophanes. Oi Baelago Tès "Exanvas "Invas xéyenv. vs. Schol. in A- faith Hefychius; and more to this purpose the Scholiast speaks. Havras Tes Ennvas Idovas of Baglagos chanev. For Idoves with the Insertion of the Lolick Digamma (which is always done when two Vowels meet) is 'Iapoves, i. e. Favones, and Stephanus Byhantius tells us, that from 'Id'wy comes' Idv, and fo Homer,

rift. Acharnens.

Stephanus de Urb. v. Idv.

Hom. 1. 15.

"Ev. 3a 3 BOIWTOI no 'Idoves ENKONTWVSS.

And Dionysus Periegetes reckons up 'Idov as one of the Rivers of Arcadia,

Dionys. u. 416.

Evda uinas on Koans iva fier i'gy & 'Idov.

And which much confirms this opinion, the Hebrew werd for Favan before the points added by the Majorites, viz. in bears a perfect Analogy with the Greek 'Low; and ארץ יון in Scripture is taken for Greece; and so Dan. 8.21. Alexander is called מלה יוון, which the LXX render Basineds באלה יוון, and Joel 2.6. You have fold my fons it is to the fons of Javan, i.e. to the Greeks, as it is generally understood. But as Javan cannot be supposed to have come into these parts without his family, so it is generally prefumed that there are no obscure foot-steps left of Favan's eldest son, Eliba's seating himself in Greece.

Greece. For from him Josephus derives the name 'Alwaeis, with whom the Ferusalem Paraphrast concurrs. Montanus from thence derives the name Elis, from whence he supposeth the Ar. Montan. Greeks are called Enances. Bochartus finds the clearest remain- Phaleg. p. 24. ders of Elisha in Elis, the same with Peloponnesus, one part of which by Homer is called Alisum; thence Ezek. 27.7. we read of the purple and scarlet from the Isles of Elisha, which makes it most probable to be that part of Greece which lay upon the Bochart. Pha-Ionian Sea, where the best purple next to the Tyrian was found, leg. 1.3. cap. 10. as the learned Bochartus hath demonstrated from several Authors. This is now the fubstance of the generally-received account concerning the plantation of Greece from the posterity of Noah. Which if it be taken as to that people which did at length possess Greece, I see no reason to disapprove it; but if it be extended to the first plantation of Greece, I see as little to embrace it. That we may therefore judge more freely of the first Inhabitants of Greece, it is requisite we take an account of it from those who profess themselves most versed in their own Antiquities, who may in a matter of this nature which is attested by the common confent of the most learned Antiquaries of Greece, be the more credited, in that what they thus deliver, may be supposed to come from an ancient and undoubted Tradition.

It is evident therefore, from the judgment of the most learned and judicious, even of the Greeks themselves, that Greece was first inhabited by a people by them called Barbarows, i.e. a people different from them in language and manners. So Ephorus, whom Polybius commends as the best Writer of the Greek Antiquities, faith that Greece was inhabited by a barbarous people before the Hellens came into it. And Hecataus Milesius cited by Strabo concerning Peloponnesus, on mes ชื่อ Exxiver อันทรฉบ สบาใน Bageaegi, which Strabo himself not only believes of Peloponnesus, but of all Greece, that it was κατοικία βας δάςων το πάλωιον, anciently a Plantation of Barbari-Geogr. 1. 7. ans; the same is affirmed by Aristotle writing of the Common. V. Scholiast. in wealth of the Tegeates concerning Arcadia, that before its be-Apollonium, 1.4. ing possessed by the Arcadians, it was inhabited by a barbarous people, who because they were expulsed their Country before moon-rifing, the Arcadians called themselves σεοσέληνοι. Whether that be the ground of that vain-glorious boast (of which

many reasons are given by learned men) I here dispute not: it is fufficient that we find the Grecians were not the first who peopled any of these several places; which is likewise attested by Herodotus, Thucydides, and others, whose testimonies we shall afterwards produce. It being then evident that the Grecians were not the first who inhabited that Country after from them called Greece, it follows to be inquired what this barbarous people was, and from whence they came. Strabo hath given us in a large Catalogue of the names of many of them, as the Dryoges, Caucones, Leleges, befides the Aones, Tembices, Hyantes, and many others; but thefe feem not to have been that ancient people, but rather some latter Castlings of the Carians, who, as Thucydides tells us, did very often make inroads upon the quarters of Greece. That people which had the largest spread, and greatest Antiquity, was the Pelasgi: thence Peloponnesus was anciently called Menaozia. Stephanus Byzantius πελοποννήσε τρείς επωνυμίαι, Απία, Πελασγία and 'Agyos: and Apollodorus faith, that the Peloponnesians were anciently called Pelafei; and Euripides.

Πελασμώτας ώνομασμένες το πείν

And elsewhere,

Πρώτον Πελασορί, Δαναίδαι το δεύτερον:

Geogr. 1. 9.

These Pelasgi were not only in Peloponnesus, but in Attica too, as appears by Strabo, where he faith the Nation of the Pelasgi did inhabit, and by the Athenians (that is after their mixture) they were called πελασχεί, Storks, δια των πλάνων for their frequent removals from place to place: and Pausanias mentions their being under the Acronoli at Athens: that they were in Thessay, is evident from Hesychius. Πελασχεί οι παλασλοί κρίνου κου βαρεάρων, κρίνου κου βαρεάρων κου β

Chap. 4. The Divine Authority of the Scriptures afferted.

525 that Country; for all those, whose Original they knew not, they called them Terra filios, and genuinos terra. Pausanids In Arcad, rightly conjectures that he was the first man among them. not as though he was alone, but because the Chief Ruler and Commander among them, and that brought them into the Country; but though they might fix themselves about Arcadia, it is evident they spread further; for Menecrates Eleates in Strabo, 1. 13. his book of the founders of Cities, affirms that all the Seacoasts of Greece called Ionica, beginning from Mycale, were first inhabited by the Pelasgi; nay we find them yet much higher up in Epirus, who were, as Strabo tells us, the first founders Lib. 7. of the famous Oracle of Dodona; for so Ephorus in him saith it was πελασρών ίδουμα, and that these were A mei τω έλλαδω Supaseuduran dezaioraroi: thence the Poet,

Ζεῦ ἀνα Δωδωναῖε Πελασμκί.

And Hefiod,

Δωδώνίω φηρόντε Πελασρών εδρανον ñevs

Strabo further makes it evident, that they were a barbarous people which lived about Dodona, from the description Hemer gives of them,

> άμφὶ ή Σελλοί Sol vales' impontal, avitonoses ganalegyan

Which Philostratus best interprets when he saith they were in these αὐτοχέδιοί πνες κὰ κπω καθασκευασμικόοι το βίον, such that thought the Gods were best pleased with their simplicity and severity of life, and therein far different from the Grecian humour. Suidas in Thessalicis (cited likewise by Strabo) faith that the Temple of Dodona was removed from Scotusa in Pelasgia to Thessala, which is confirmed by Herodotus in Euterpe, where he largely speaks of the Temple and Oracle at Dodona. These Pelasgi confined not themselves to Greece neither, but were dispersed into the neighbour Islands, as Chios, Creet, Lesbos, Lemnos, Imbro, Samos, as will appear afterwards; and at last came into Italy, as is well known, and are thought to be the same with

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the Tyrrhenians, and by some conceived to be the first founders of Rome. We see what a large spread the Pelassi had over Greece, which was divided after the Hellens began to appear, into τὸ πελασμιὰν and τὸ ἐλλιμιὰν, as Herodotus witnesseh; and so these two appear to be a very different people from one another, and not the same under different names as is commonly thought.

Sect. 12.

Which sufficiently appears from their language, which was quite different from one another. So Herodotus How of Heλασχοί βάζβαεον γλώσων ίεντες, they used a barbarous language: i. e. a language not understood by the Hellens; who at first, had their chief residence in Thessaly, from whence by degrees they came forwards into Greece, as Thucydides shews. For although the name of Hellens at last spread it self over all the people of Greece, yet it was at first peculiar to that part of The fally called Pthiotis, and thence Homer calls them properly Hellens which followed Achilles from thence; and it appears by Homer that there was a City there called Exxas, which as Stephanus de Urbibus tells us was there built by "Enans, although he will not have him to be Hellen the fon of Deucalion, but the son Pthius, wherein he is mistaken; For Thucydides plainly shews, that it was from Hellen the son of Deucalion, that the name "Examples came, and this Hellen lived in Pthiotis. But although they were first in Pthiotis, yet they daily increafing in numbers and power, by degrees they got all Theffaly into their hands, of which one part was called πελασμώπε; afterwards under Dorus the fon of Hellen they conquered Heftiactis, that part of Thessaly which lies under the Mountains Offa and Olympus; from thence they were beaten back by the Cadmeans into Pindus, where the Greeks were first called Maxedvoi, as Herodotus tells us; from hence they went into Dryopis, and thence into Peloponnesus, and there had the name Derians; but before their coming hither, they had first secured themselves of the Hellens lying between Thessaly and Peloponnesus, and there they disposses the Pelasgi in all the Attick region; who were now forced to submit or to fly; they who fubmitted, as most of them did, were incorporated into the Greeks, and became one people with them, and so by degrees lost that former language which was peculiar to themselves and wholly distinct from the Greek tongue. That the Hellens did thus

thus gradually come into Peloponnesus, is evident from the names of people and places common to Thessaly and Peloponnesus which came from hence, that though the Greeks left the Cities behind them, yet they carried most of the names along with them. Thus the Achai, Ionians, and Aolians, and Dorians in Peloponnesus came from those of the same names in Thessaly; and so likewise the names of these following Regions and Cities were common to both, as Ellopia, Estima, Eretria, and Oropos, Graia, Larissa, Psophis, Iton, Oecalia and very many others. Salmasus seems to be of opinion, that the Pelasgi ne- De Hellen: 2. ver used any language distinct from the Hellens; but besides 315. that it is directly contrary to the testimony of Herodotus, the arguments he produceth for it are very weak. The first is because the Pelasgi that went into Italy, did use the Greek tongue, from their calling Agylla Care, from raise, a word pronounced from one on the Walls; and because the Arcades used only the Greek language in the Lolian Dialect, which Evander carried with him into Italy, and from which most of the old Roman language was derived. But doth not Herodotus expresly fay, that after the mixture between the Greeks and Pelasgi these by degrees lost their own proper language and made use of the common Greek tongue? Yet afterwards too it is evident from Herodotus in some places, as at Crotona, they did use a language different from the Greek. His other argument is, that the names of the eldest persons mentioned were originally Greek; but this is expresly denied by Strabo who makes the contrary one of his strongest arguments, that the Barbarians did anciently inhabit Greece; and instanceth in Cecrops, Codrus, Lolus, Cothus, Drymas, Crimanus. Thus we have abundantly proved against the common opinion, that Greece was not first peopled by the Hellens, or the posterity of Elifa, although these did afterwards come to the full possession of Greece.

It remains that we shew whence these Pelasgi came, and of Sect. 13. whose posterity they were, and what the language was which was used by them. He that gave the name to this people according to the Grecian fables, was one Pelasgus, which none will wonder at among them, whose constant custom it was, (partly by reason of their Ignerance of the true account of their names, and partly by their pride that they might not feem ignorant

Cap. 3.

norant of any thing) when they meet with any names of people, to find out some person near it who was the sounder of them. Thus Attica from Actaus, it being anciently called Αμπιή, and Cranae from Cranaus, Agialea from Agialeus, Mauritania from Maurus, Scythia from one Scythes, Galataa from Galates, and thus in multitudes of other names. But from the name Pelasgi we may probably find out the true founder of the people, allowing that variation which is usually caused through the Greeks melting the harsher words of the Eastern languages into a found fit for their more delicate palates, as is evident in the comparing the names of the Prophets in Hebrew, with what they are in the Greek version. the Pelasgi may with great probability be derived from אלם, Phaleg; for which we have the concurrent testimony of Grot, not in lib. two learned persons, Grotius and Salmasus, who are contented 1. de jur. bel. to mention it, without bringing much evidence of reason for it. What they only touch at, we shall endeavour to make Sal. de Hellen. out more at large; which we shall do by removing the great presumptions against it, and laying down the probabilities for The great presumptions lying against it are; for that the Illes of the Nations fell to the posterity of Jepheth, and that Phaleg lived with Eber in Chaldaa. For the first, it must be acknowledged that the greatest part of the Countries lying upon the Ocean and Mediterranean, were in the time when Moses wrote so inhabited; not that the habitations of the fons of Noah, had their bounds and limits fet them either by God or Noah, but that the posterity of Japhet did chiefly address themselves to those parts which lay towards Europe; but yet not so, as to exclude any of the posterity of-Sem, if their necessities for further room made it necessary for them to feek for habitations further abroad. For we can have no reason to think, that because the chief of Sem's posterity did live together, therefore none of them went further off, which necessity would put them upon because of their great increase; for we read of *Phaleg* and others, that besides those in direct line to Abraham (whose Genealogy it was Moses his great defign to recount) they begat many other fons and daughters, which would make it necessary for them, to seek their habitations further abroad. And that Phaleg and Ragan did fo we

have the express testimony of Epiphanius, paren if Parau offices

Gen. 11.19,21.

δπ το τ' Ευρώπης κλίμα βυευκότες τω της Σκυ Has μέρς κ' τοίς αυτή De Scythis, ep. Edver megreneidnoav, and the te Oneges naixias, no entreve of Ener Id Acu & Panoi Degues provan. That from the age of Therah and thence forward Phaleg and Ragau diverted toward the Clime of Europe, to part of Scythia, and were joyned with those Nations from which the Thracians arose. Several things make this not so improbable as some have imagined it to be; for first, it is the constant acknowledgment of all sober inquirers into the original of the Greeks, that Greece was first peopled from Scythia; and indeed almost all the Nations in Europe have come out of that Country: besides there is evidence of it, even in the Grecian Fables; for Prometheus (from whom the Greeks derived themselves) is fansied by them to lie bound in Mount Caucafus, which must be supposed to be the Country from whence he came. Again, it is evident already that the Hellens came not into Greece before it was peopled by the Pelasgi, and that these had different language and customs from one another; now then in all probability, although the posterity of Elisa might come first down from Seythia into those parts, and seat themselves in Macedonia and Thessaly, where they had in probability more than room enough at first and a Country to their defire: they might be willing to permit the posterity of Phaleg to pass on further; for in those first plantations we cannot otherwise conceive, but that the last corners must be the furthest goers; unless they had strength enough to drive the former inhabitants out of their feats whereof they were already posfessed, as the Scythians did afterwards, and so the Hellens: So then the posterity of Phaleg being forced to quit their own Country because of the multitude of inhabitants, must be supposed to take that course, where in probability they might find an empty feat fit for them to dwell in; thence they come towards Europe; for they faw how the posterity of Sem did spread its felf Eastward already, and Cham Southward, and coming to part of that vast Country of Scythia, which was both already taken up and not so convenient an habitation for them, they draw downwards towards Thracia, and there the posterity of Thiras, from whom the Thracians came, had already possessed themselves; passing further into Thessaly, they find that already planted by some of the posterity of Elisa, but as yet but scant and thin of inhabitants; therefore they disperse themselves

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up and down through some part of Epirus, most part of Ellas, and some pass into Peloponnesus, where they fix themselves chiefly upon Arcadia, and thence spread up and down by degrees towards the Sea-fide; for we cannot but think that the Maritime parts were the last peopled, partly for fear of another delige, partly for want of conveniency of Navigation, most of their travels being by Land; and partly when Navigation grew more in use for fear of Pirates, who drove a great trade upon the Coasts of Greece in elder times, as is most evident from Thucydides in the beginning of his History. Thus we have a reasonable account given of the Pelasgi their first coming into Greece, and how by degrees the Hellens came to possess their Country, and what a fair pretence the Arcadians had to boast of the greatest antiquity, their Country being probably first peopled by the Pelasgi of any part of the whole Chersonese. and the feat of the leader of the whole company whom they call ! elasgus, and the Scriptures Fhaleg.

Sect. 14.

Having thus far cleared the Antiquities of Greece as to the first planters of it, whom we have evidenced to have been the Pelasgi, and these derived from Peleg, it will be no great difficulty to refolve what language they brought along with them. which must be supposed to be the same with that used in the family from whence Peleg or Phaleg.came, as to the substance of it, although it might admit as great variation of Dialect from it as the Chaldee or Syriack doth. But this I will not only suppose, but offer these probabilities for the proof of it: the first is, the agreement of the ancient Greek language with the Hebrew in many of its primitive words; and here we have a most rational and probable account given of it; which is, the Greeks mixing with the Pelasgi, and both coming to be one people, they must needs retain many of the old words used by the Pelasgi in their Greek language; which are evidently of an Eastern extraction, the ground of which cannot with fuch probability be fetched from Cadmus and the Phanicians, because it is not so easie admission of a foreign Language after the perfection of their own, unless by long tract of time, or great numbers over-running the former people, neither of which can be fo truly affirmed of Cadmus and his company; for they were foon driven out of Greece, he himself ending his days in Illiricum, neither was their spread so large

as that of the Pelasgi, who were before possessors of the Country; and it is continually feen how impossible it is for any Conquerors, as the Greeks were, to bring their own language so into a place, where some of the former people are suffered to live, and not to retain many of their old words among them, and so make the Language mixt of both, as it is in all Nations conquered by the Romans; the Roman not being purely spoken by any, but corrupted with a mixture of the former Language in use among them. The second argument is from the different pronunciation and dialects in use in the Greek language; of which no account so likely can be given, as the mixture with different Languages. This is most evident in the Dorick Dialect; for the Dorians inhabiting probably where most of the Pelasgi had been, their pronunciation and dialect comes the nearest to the Eastern of any of the Greeks: For in the Dorick Dialect the Tratesasuos or broad pronunciation, is most taken notice of: So he in Theocritus upbraids the Dorians, उन मरेबरसवंजिंडनार वै मक्यीय, they speak every thing very broad; which answers to the pronunciation of the Eastern Languages; besides, the Dorick Dialett delights much in adding a to the end of words, which besides that it is the custom of Eastern Tongues, especially the Syriack, it doth much widen the pronunciation. The third Argument is from the remainders of the Eastern Tongues in those places, especially where the Pelasgi had been. The Pelasgi are much taken notice of for their frequent removes and travelling from one place to another; which I suppose was chiefly after the Hellens had conquer'd the Country where they dwelt, then they were forced to go feek better habitations abroad; thence Strabo calls the Nation of the Pelasgi πολύπλανον η ταχύ το έθν 🗗 πορε επαναςάofs: and elsewhere that they were πολλαχέ της ευζώπης τὸ παλαιον πλανώυθροι, they went up and down to a great part of Europe; but we may suppose them to have made their first and chief refort to the neighbour Islands to Greece; where we shall see what evidence they left of their language there. first Island we meet with them in, is Creete; so Strabo speaking of them, is to The Kentus Etroixos perovativ, as quoir Ounges; that a Colony of them lived in Creete, for which he voucheth Homer's authority:

Lib. 5.

Lib. 12.

Lib. 5.

Odyff. T. 173.

"Αλλη δ' άλλων γλώσα μεμιγμιών, εν μιν 'Αχαιοί, Έν ή Έτεσκεντες μεγαλήτοςες, ον ή Κυδώνες, Δωρίεςς τε τεικαίκες, διοί τε Πελασροί.

De Phan. Col. 1.1. c. 15.

Lib. 1. c. 9.

c. 12.

It is evident then that the Pelasgi were in Creete. Now most of the Cretan words are of an Eastern extraction, if we believe the learned Bochartus, who hath promifed a discourse on that subject; besides Creete we find the Pelaszi in Chios. κ) χίοι 🖰 δικιςας έαυτων Πελασγές φασι τές οπ Θεπαλίας, faith Strabo, the Inhabitants of Chios fay that the Pelasgi of Thessaly were their first Inhabitants; and here the fore-named learned person hath derived the Name Chios, the Mountain Pelinaus, and the Wine Arvifum, all from the Eastern languages. The next we find them in, is Lesbos, & & This respon Meraryian eighnasi, which from them was called Pelasgia, faith Strabo, whose name is likewise setched out of the East. By Bochartus fur-Geogr. p. 2. l.1. ther we find them in Lemnos and Imbros: fo Anticlides in Strabo, σερέτες φησί Πελασγές τὰ περὶ λέμνον "Ιμβερν κήσαι; concerning whose names, see Bochartus 82. I know that learned Author makes the Phanicians the Authors of all these names, from no other ground generally, but because they are of an Eastern derivation; but according to what we have laid down, we may yield to the thing it felf, and upon clearer grounds; for of some of these Islands he ingenuously confesseth he can find no evidence of the Phanicians being in them. Phanices in his Insulis habitasse nusquam legimus: but we find it very plain, that in those very Islands the Pelasgi inhabited; and whether account then be more probable, let the Reader judge. One thing more I shall insist on, which is the Original of the Samothracian Mysteries: That these were as to their names from the Eastern languages, is now acknowledged by all learned men, the Cabiri being so evidently derived from כביר, which signifies strength and power, i. e. the Dii potes, so Cabiri is explained by Varro and Tertullian, and the particular names of the feveral Cabiri mentioned by the Scholiast on Apollonius, 'Aξιερος, 'Αξιόκερσα, 'Αξιόκερσ @ and Κάδμιλ @ are very handfom-

> ly explained by that learned and excellent Bochartus from the Eastern languages; only he will needs have them derived from the Phanicians, whereas Herodotus expresly tells us that they

Lib. 1. c. 9.

De Spell. c. 8. Lib. 1, c. 12.

were

were from the Pelasgi, whose words are these; oss 3 tà Ka- Lib. 2. βείρων όρμα μεμύηται τα Σαμοθρήτας: Θητελέκοι λαβόντες οθος. Πε- λασρών: And again, τω & Σαμοθενίκων δικών πρότερον Πελασροί επί πι πας' Αθωαίοσι σύνοικοι ερίνον ο, κή Φρά τεπν Σαμοθεήϊκες τα iena apanausaver. We see evidently by this, that the Samothracians derived their Mysteries from the Pelasgi; and without all question they had their names from thence, whence they derived their Nighteries: And to this purpose it is further observable, that as the old Hetrurians were certainly a Colony of the Pelasgi, upon their removal out of Greece; fo Vossius observes that the old Hetruscan language (fere à vris ha- De Idol.l. 2.c. 57. bet cuneta sacrorum nomina) hath almost all the sacred appella- Annot in Mat. tions from the Eastern tongues. For which purpose it is further observable, which Grotius takes notice of, that the jus pontificum Romanorum was taken a great part from the Hetrusci, and the Hetrurians had it ab Hebrais out of the Eastern

parts.

By all which I cannot conceive but this opinion, notwith- Sect. 15. standing its novelty, is advanced to as high a degree of probability, as any that stands on the like foundations; and not only fo, but it is an excellent clue to direct us to the Labyrinth. of Antiquities, and gives us a fair account whence the Eastern Tongues came to be so much used among both the ancient Greeks and Hetrurians. One thing more this will help us to understand far better than any falvo hath been yet used for it; which is the affinity spoken of by Arius King of Lacedamon in his Letters to Onias, between the Jews and Lacedamonians: έυξέθη ον γεαρή περί τε τη Σπαςπατών κ) Ικθαίων ότι ρίουν αθελφοί ι Maccab. 12 ນ ore eion ວັນ ຊຸນິສຣ 'Aßeadu: which is explained by Josephus thus: 21. εντυχούθες γεσιοή τινι, εὐερικω ώς εξ ένος εξεν χώςς Ίκθαῖοι κζ Λακεθαι- Antiq.l.13.6.9 μόνιοι οπ της προς 'Aceaaμ δικόση &: They had found in a book that the Jews and Lacedamonians were of the same stock, from their mutual relation to Abraham. Vossius thinks the Original De Idol. 1.1.6.13 of this was from those of the posterity of Anak, who came into Greece, and peopled Sparta, and would feem to have been of the posterity of Abraham; or that they were partly of the posterity of Abraham by Agar or Ceturah, and partly of the Canaanites driven out by Joshua: But how unlikely a thing is it (supposing Sparta peopled by the Canaanites, which yet is not evident.) that they should give out themselves to be of

that

that flock which they had been expelled their Country by? And for the true posterity of Abraham coming thither, as we have no ground for it but the bare affertion, fo we have this strong evidence against it, that all that came from Abraham were circumcifed, as the Ishmaelines, Hagarens, &c. which we never read of among the Laced amonians. H. Grotius differs not much from the opinion of Vollius concerning the ground of this kindred between the Jews and Spartans: For in his notes on that place in the Maccabees, where it is spoken of. he gives this account of it. The Dorians, of whom the Spartans were a part, came from the Relasgi; the language of the Pelasgi was different from that of the Greeks, as appears by Herodotus in his Clio: noav oi Πελασρί βάς βαρον γλώπαν ιενίες. Now the Pelasgi (faith he) are 'a dispers, a scattered Nation; thence he supposeth these Pelasgi or banished people, to have come from the Confines of Arabia and Syria, in which the posterity of Abraham and Ceturah had placed themselves. But i. it is uncertain whether the posterity of Abraham by Keturah were placed fo near Canaan or no. I know Junius endeavours to find the feat of all the fons of Ceturah in Aralia; but Mercer gives feveral not improbable reasons why he conceives them placed not in the East of Canaan, but in the Eastern parts of the world. 2. We have no evidence at all of any remove of these sons of Abraham by Ceturah out of the parts of Arabia, supposing them placed there; nor any reason why they should be banished thence. 3. That which was the badge of Abraham's posterity, was never that we read of in use among the Spartans, which was Circumcifion. Indeed in much later Ages than this we speak of, we read of a people among the Thracians who were circumcifed, whom the Greeks themfelves judged to be 7ews. So Aristophanes brings the Odomanscharnens. Att. tes in. Tis Two Odoude Two To The O donote Degree de anote Degree (faith the Scholiast) i.e. ανέτιλλον, ελεμίνοντο ή κή απετίλλοντο οί Deaus τα αιδοία η αποσεουρμίνα είχον αυτά. Whereby it is plain that Circumcision was in use among the Thracians; for these Odomantes were (faith the Scholiast) a people of Thrace. Quoi 3 aures Isdaiss eval. It feems it was a tradition among them that they were Jews. If so, it seems most probable that they were some of the ten Tribes, who were placed about Colchis, and the adjacent places: For Herodotus in Euterpe faith, that the

· Sc. 4.

the Syrians that lived about the Rivers Thermodon and Parthenius, learned Circumcifion from the Colchi, of whom he faith, Μένοι πάντων Κόλχοι κὸ 'Αιχύστιοι κὸ 'Αιθίσπες σειτέμνονται do dernis ra aidoia. Only the Colchi, and Ægyptians, and Ethiopians had originally the custom of Circumcision. Or else these Odomantes might be some of the dispersed Jews in Armenia, where Strabo mentions a Region called Odomantis, and Geogr. 1. 11. fo they retained the name of the place from whence they came, after their removal into Thrace. But what-ever these Odomantes were, they were far enough from the Spartans, who never were thus suspected of Judaism, nor laught at for Circumcision. So that this opinion of Grotius on that account feems not very probable. Bochartus, who hath been so happy in many other conjectures, yet here gives out, unless it may depend upon the testimony of Claudius Iolaus in Stephanus Bi- De Phanic Col. zantius, who fabulously derives the Jews from one Judaus 1.1.6.22. Sparton, who went from Thebes along with Bacchus into the Wars; which Sparton they might confound with another Sparton, the Son of Phonoreus, the Founder of Sparta; which yet is rejected as a Fable by Pausanias in Laconicis. Surely the Laced amonians were very ambitious of kindred with the fews, that would claim it upon such grounds as these, especially at fuch a time when the people of the Fews were under diffress, and their kindred might be like to cost them so dear; And if they had never fuch a mind to have claimed kindred with the Fews, they would certainly have done it upon a more plaulible testimony than the Fable of one Claudius Iolaus, that had neither fence nor reason in it; and yet supposing his Fable true, it had been nothing to the purpose, without the linking another Fable to it, which was so gross, that even the Greeks themselves were ashamed of it, who were always the most daring forgers of Fables in the world. But let us fee further what the Divine (as some have loved to call him) Jos. Scali- Canon. Isag. ger faith to it: All that he faith, is only a wonder or two at it: P. 332. Quid magis mirum quam Lacedæmonios ab Abraham prognatos esse, &c. and a refutation of an absurd opinion, that Oebalus the Father of Tyndareus, and Grandfather of Caftor, Pollux, and Helena, was the same with Ebal, mentioned Gen. 10. 28. which there can be no reason for, since Ebal was the Son of Joktan, and so of another race from Abraham; and Joktan's

Sons:

Sons were placed Eastward, but chiefly Oebalus was within an hundred years before the destruction of Troy; but Phaleg Unkle to Ebal, died 664 years before Oebalus in A. M. 1993. Thus far then we cannot find any plausible account of this claim of kindred: but though it be an endless task to make good all the claims of kindred in the world, especially to persons of power and authority, yet there being no visible interest or defign which the Spartans could have in fuch a claim, especially at that time with a Nation generally hated and maligned by Heathen Idolaters, we cannot suppose but there must be fome at least plaufible ground for fuch a persuasion among them. What if we should conjecture that the Spartans might find in the Greek version of the Pentateuch, which was much foread abroad at that time among the Sons of Ishmael, one whose name makes the nearest approach to their Cadmus, from whom they suppose themselves derived; for the youngest of Ishmael's Sons was called Kedemah, Gen. 25. 15. which the Syriack renders Kedem, the very name of Cadmus in the Eastern Tongues. But this being a light conjecture, I pass it by, and return to the subject of our discourse, which gives a plausible account of the ground of this kindred. We have already shewed that the Pelasgi were the first who peopled Greece, (χτι την Ελλείδα πάσαν επεπέλασε, is Strabo's expression of that Nation, that it spread over all Greece, and withall it appears that the chief Seat of the Pelasgi was in Arcadia, to which next adjoyns Laconia; and therefore in all probability was peopled by them; and besides, the Dorians sprang from the Pelasgi, and the Spartans were a part of the Dorians, as appears already out of Grotius; so that what kindred the Pelalgi had, was derived down to the Spartans; and we have manifested that these Pelasgi were from Haleg, and the Scripture sen. 11.17,28. tells us that Phaleg was the Son of Eber, from whom Abraham came in a direct and lineal fuccession. And thus the Fews coming from Abraham, and the Spartans by the Pelasgi from Phaleg, they both came out of the same stock: For so Fosephus expresseth it, not that the Lacedamonians came from Abraham, but that the Jews and they were both of evos vives, out of the same stock, and both had relation to Abraham; the Jews as coming in a direct line, the Spartans as deriving from Phaleg; from whom Abraham came. And thus much may now fuffice

fice to clear the first Plantation of Greece, and to shew how confonant it is to facred Scripture; which I have taken the more pains in, because of the serviceableness of this discourse to that end, and to shew what use may be made of this kind of Learning, for vindicating the honour of the facred Scrip-

The only thing remaining as to the Origin of Nations, is the peopling of that vast Continent of America, which I cannot think we have yet sufficient information, either concerning the passages thither, especially East and North, or concerning any records the Indians have among themselves absolutely to determine any thing in it. It feems most probable that the feveral parts of it were peopled at feveral times, and from feveral parts, especially North and East; but to go about absolutely to determine from what Nation, in what Age, by what means they were first peopled, were a piece of as great confidence as ignorance, 'till we have more certain discoveries of it. I chuse therefore rather to referr the Reader to the bandyings Vi. Grotium of this Controversie in the many Writers about it, than to Joh. de Laet. undertake any thing as to the decision of it. Only in the ge-Gent. Amerineral it appears from the remaining tradition of the Flood, and can many Rites and Customs used among them, that they had the V. Manasse Ben. fame original with us, and that there can be no argument Ifrael. Spes Iffame original with us, and that there can be no argument raelis. Et brought against it from themselves, since some Authors tell us, Spizzel. de Isthat the eldest Accounts and Memoires they have, do not ex-raelitis Ameria ceed 800 years backward; and therefore their Testimony can canis. be of no validity in a matter of fo great Antiquity, as the Origin of Nations is.

CHAP. V.

Of the Origin of the Heathen Mythology.

That there were some remainders of the ancient history of the World preserved in the several Nations after the dispersion. How it came to be corrupted: by decay of knowledge, increase of Idolatry, confusion of languages. An enquiry into the cause of that. Difficulties against the common opinion that languages were confounded at Babel. Those difficulties cleared. Of the fabulousness of Poets. The particular ways whereby the Heathen Mythology arose. Attributing the general history of the World to their own Nation. The corruption of Hebraisms. Alteration of names. Ambiguity of sence in the Oriental languages. Attributing the actions of many to one person, as in Jupiter, Bacchus, &c. The remainders of Scripture-history among the Heathens. The names of God, Chaos, formation of man among the Phoenicians. Of Adam among the Germans, Ægyptians, Cilicians. Adam under Saturn. Cain among the Phænicians. Tubal-Cain and Jubal under Vulcan and Apollo. Naamah under Minerva. Noah under Saturn, Janus, Prometheus and Bacchus. Noah's three sons under Jupiter, Neptune, and Pluto. Canaan under Mercury, Nimrod under Bacchus, Magog under Prometheus. Of Abraham and Isaac among the Phoenicians. Jacob's service under Apollo's. The Baininia from Bethel. Joseph under Apis. Moses under Bacchus. Joshua under Hercules. Balaam under the old Silenus.

Self. 1. THE main particulars contained in the Scriptures concerning the History of Ancient Times being thus far cleared, there remains only that evidence which there is of the truth of the historical part of those eldest times, in those foot-steps of it which are contained in the Heathen Mythology. For we cannot conceive, that since we have manifested that all mankind did come from the posterity of Noah, that all those passages which concerned the History of the World, should be presently obliterated and extinguished among them, but some kind of tradition would be still preserved, although by degrees

it would be so much altered for want of certain records to preferve it in, that it would be a hard matter to discover its original without an exact comparing it with the true History it felf from whence it was first taken. For it fared with this Tradition of the first ages of the world, as with a person who hath a long time travelled in foreign parts, who by the variety of Climes and Countries may be so far altered from what he was, that his own relations may not know him upon his return, but only by fome certain marks which he hath in his body, by which they are affured, that however his complexion and visage may be altered, yet the person is the same still. Thus it was in this original tradition of the world; through its continual passing from one age to another, and the various humours, tempers, and defigns of men, it received strange difguises and alterations as to its outward favour and complexion; but yet there are some such certain marks remaining on it, by which we find out its true original. Two things then will be the main subject of our enquiry here. 1. By what means the original tradition came to be altered and corrupted. 2. By what marks we may discern its true original, or what evidences we have of the remainders of Scripture-history in the Heathen Mythology.

1. Concerning the means whereby the Tradition by degrees came to be corrupted. There may be some more general, and others more particular. The general causes of it were;

1. The gradual decay of knowledge and increase of Barbarism in the world; occasioned by the want of certain records to preserve the ancient History of the World in: Which we at Book 1. c. 1. large discoursed of in our entrance on this subject. Now in Sett. 16. the decay of knowledge, there must needs follow a sudden and strange alteration of the memory of former times, which hath then nothing to preserve it, but the most uncertain report of fame, which alters and difguifeth things according to the humours, and inclinations, and judgments of those whose hands it passeth through.

2. The gradual increase of Idolatry in the world: which began foon after the dispersion of Nations, and in whose age, we cannot at fo great a distance and in so great obscurity precisely determine; but as foon as Idolatry came in, all the ancient tradition was made subservient in order to that end; and those perSect. 2.

there,

sons whose memories were preserved in several Nations, by degrees came to be worshipped under diversities of names; and such things were annexed to the former traditions as would tend

most to advance the greatest superstition in the world.

3. The Confusion of Languages at Babel, was one great reason of corrupting the ancient tradition of the world. For in fo great variety (as fuddenly happened) of Languages in the world, it cannot be conceived but fuch things which might be preserved in some uniform manner, had all Nations used the fame language, would through the diversity of Idioms and Properties of several Tongues be strangely altered and disguised, as will appear afterwards. This alteration of Languages in the world upon the confusion of Tongues at Babel, brought as great a confusion into the original tradition, as it did among those who were the designers of that work.

Sect. 3.

And because this subject of the original and cause of this diversity of languages among men, doth both tend to explain the present subject, and to clear the truth of Scripture-history, I shall a little further enquire into it. Chiefly on this account, because it is pretended that such a confusion is needless which is delivered in Scripture, for the producing fuch diversities of languages. which would arise through mere length of time, and the varieties of Climes and Customs in the world. But if we only speak V. Mer. Calaub, concerning the sence of Moles about it, the enquiry is of greater de4.linguis p.3. difficulty than at first view it seems to be. For it is pretended that Moses no-where speaks of a diversity of languages, as we understand it, but only of a confusion of their speech who were at Babel, which might well be, although they all used the same language; that is, there might be a confusion raised in their minds, that they could not understand one another; their notions of things being disturbed, so that though they heard one word, they had different apprehensions of it: some thinking it Exercit, in Cor- fignified one thing and fome another: as Julius Scaliger tells dan. 259 fest. 1. us that the Jews he had conversed with, did not understand by it a multiplication of Tongues; but only by that confusion their former no ions of things by the same words were altered. As if one called for 12x a ftone, one by that word understands lime, another water, another fand, &c. this must needs produce a ftrange confusion among them, and enough to make them defist from their work. But supposing no such division of languages

O.c.

there, yet after their dispersion, which might be caused by the former confusion, by the different Laws, Rites, and Customs, Commerce, and Trading, and Tract of Time, there would have rifen a division of their several Tongues. But if there were such a division of Tongues miraculously caused there (that as it is commonly faid, all those who were of the same language, went together in their feveral companies) whence comes it to pass, that in their dispersion we read of several families dispersed, which used the same language after their dispersion? as all the fons of Canaan mentioned, Gen. 10.15, 16, 17, 18. used the Canaanitish tongue: in Greece, Javan and Elisa had the same language. In Ægypt, Miss aim and Pathrusim; in Arabia the sons of Foktan and Chus; in Chaldea Aram and Uz the inhabitants of Syria, Mash of Mesopotamia, Nimrod of Babylon, Assur of Assyria: whence comes it to pass if their several Tongues were the cause of their dispersion, that these several heads of families should use the same tongue? Another reason against the common opinion, is this, which feems to have a great deal of force in it. If tongues were divided at Babel as it is imagined; whence was it, that the nearer any Nation lay to those who had the primitive language the Hebrew, they did participate more of that tongue than those who were more remote, as is plain in the Chaldeans, Canaanites, Greeks, and others? whereas if their languages were divided at Babel, they would have retained their own languages as well as others. This very argument prevailed fo far with the learned If. Cafaubon, as appears by his adverfaria Diatrib, de L. on this subject (published by the learned Doctor's son) as to Heb. p. 17, 18: make him leave the common opinion, and to conclude the feveral tongues to be only some variations from the Hebrew, but yet so as many new words were invented too. Hence he obferves that the Afatick Greeks came nearer to the Hebrew than the European. And if this opinion hold true, it is the best Pag. 478. foundation for deriving other languages from the Hebrew: a thing attempted by the same learned person, as you may see in the book fore-cited, and endeavoured by Guichardus, Avenarius and others. Thus we fee there is no agreement in men's minds concerning the division of tongues at Babel.

But having fet down this opinion with its reasons, I shall not so leave the received opinion, but shall first see what may be faid for that, and leave the judgment concerning the probability

Sect. 4.

And

KI. I, 2.

bability of either to the understanding Reader. And it seems to be grounded on these reasons. I. That had it been left to men's own choice; there cannot be a fufficient reason asfigued of the diversity of languages in the world. For there being one language originally in the world, whereby men did represent their conceptions to one another; we cannot imagine that men should of themselves introduce so great an alteration, as whereby to take off that necessary society and converse with each other, which even nature it self did put men Annot in Gen, upon. Hence Calvin and others conclude that prodigii loco habenda est linguarum diversitas; because there having been that freedom of converse among men, it is not to be suppofed they should of themselves, cut it off to their mutual disadvantage. But to this it is faid, that the long tract of time and diversity of customs might alter the language. I grant it much, but not wholly; and they would only therein differ in their languages, wherein their customs differed: so that there would remain still such an agreement as whereby they might understand each other; which it will be hard to find in many of the eldest languages. As for the length of time, though that doth alter much in reference to words and phrases, in which that of Horace holds true, Multa renascentar quæ jam cecidere, &c. Yet it will be yet more difficult to find where mere length of time hath brought a whole language out of use, and another in the room of it. But that which I think deferves well to be considered, is this, that the greatest alteration of languages in the world hath rifen from Colonies of Nations that used another language; and so by the mixture of both together the language might be much altered: as the Hebrew by the Chaldees in Babylon: the Spanish, Italian and others by the Latin, as Breerwood shews, our own by the Normans and others. So that were there not a diversity of languages supposed, this enterfering of people would bring no confiderable alteration along with it, no more than a Colony from New England would alter our language here. And as for another cause assigned of the change of languages, the Method hift c.9. difference of climates, which Bodin gives as the reason why the Northern people use consonants and aspirates so much, especially the Saxons, and those that live by the Baltick Sea

who pronounce thus, Per theum ferum pibimus penum finum.

Enquiries, c. 5, 6.

And fo R. D. Kimchi observes of the Ephraimites, Judg. 12.6. that it was the Air that was the cause of their listing, and calling it Sibboleth, as he there observes of the men of Sar-Mayer. Prodr. phath, that is, the French, that they could not pronunce Schin, Chaldaism, c. 1, but pronounced it like Than Raphe. But by these examples we fee that this would cause only an alteration as to some letters and syllables, and rather as to the pronunciation, than any variety of the language. So that we see that, setting afide the confusion of languages at Babel, there can be no reafon fufficient affigned for the variety of languages in the world, 2. Though it be granted, that a confusion in their minds without distinct languages were enough to make them defist from their work, yet the context in that place, Gen. 11. doth inferr a diversity of tongues, as will appear from the antecedents and consequents; as from the first verse, where it is not conceivable why it should be there taken notice of as such a remarkable circumstance, that then they had but one language before they fet upon this work, if there was not a diversity of tongues caused by the work they went about; but especially ver. 6. where God takes such notice of this very thing, that they had but one language, wherein they were so consident to carry on their work; therefore, ver.7. when he would destroy their work by confounding their language, it must be by multiplying that language into many more; for it must be taken in opposition to what is said in the other verse. And what is there added, their not understanding one anothers speech, seems to referr not to their inward conceptions, as though they did not understand one anothers minds, but to the outward expressions, as maw doth apparently relate to them further in ver. 8. this is fet down as the cause of their dispersion, which had the tongue been the same afterwards as it was before. could have been no reason for it. Again some argue from the name Babel given to the place, from 77, which fignifies to confound and mingle things of feveral kinds together. So used Judg. 19.21. Esay 30.24. Fob 6.5. &c. thence the name 722 for for the middle 7 left out, as in Golgotha for Golgotha, Kigaltha for Kilkaltha, and others of a like nature. Besides, there seems to be somewhat in what is said, that the families were divided according to their tongues, Genef. 10. 5, 20, 31. which doth at least imply, a diversity of tonques among them,

the cause of which must be assigned by them who will not allow of the consustion and division of languages at Babel. Further, this feems most agreeable to God's end in making of them thus leave off their work, that there might be not only a prefent judgment upon them, but that which might remain to posterity as a note of the folly of their Ancesters. Those who recede from the common opinion lest they should give advantage to Infidels by attributing that to a miracle, which might be done without, feem to be more wary than wife in it. For besides that it is certain that miracles may be in those things which might be effected otherwise by natural causes, when they are produced without the help of those causes, and in a space of time impossible to nature; and that it hath not been as yet proved how such diversity of tongues as is in the world would have been effected without such a miracle; it must be granted by them that there was a miracle in it; and what greater difficulty there should be in the variety of languages, than in the fignification of the same words, I understand not, But I see no necessity of afferting that every one of the families had a distinct language, and the common opinion of 70. or 72. as the Gr families and as many languages, is now taken for a groundless fancy by learned men: as is easily proved from the dividing Father and Children, whose families could not certainly be without them: and some supposed to be unborn then, as foktan's 12 Children; especially if we say as many do, that the Confusion was at the birth of Phaleg, and Foktan was his younger brother, as the Fews generally do. To the last objection it may be replyed, that the agreement of languages in some radical words doth not inferr the derivation of the one from the other, as is plain in the Persian and German, in which learned men have observed so many Lipscent. 3. ep. words alike. And so by Busbequius of the inhabitants about Tauricke Cherlonese; and so in most of our modern tongues Busbeg. ep. 24. there may be some words alike without any such dependence or derivation. Again, though it be granted that the languages of them who were at Babel were confounded, yet it is not necessary we should say that all Noah's posterity were there. It is thought by some that they were chiefly Cham Philol fact. p.2. and his company; if to then Sem and his posserity might retain the language they had before, only with some variations.

Bota. Geor I.I. C. 15. Buxt. diatr. Ject. 54. Buxt. diat fect. 68.

44.

Mayer. c. 6.

But

But this is very uncertain, unless we take it for Heber and Peleg, from whose vicinity other bordering Nations might make use of many of their primitive words: and for the Greeks, it will be granted that many of their words, especially the old Beotick, had affinity with the Hebrew; but it was from the Pelasgi at first and Cadmus the Phanician afterwards: the old Canaanitish language, being if not the pure Hebrew. vet a dialect of that tongue, as is proved by many learned men. But however these things be, it is not necessary to fay that all Mother tongues so called, were then existent at that confusion: but the present curse did divide their languages who were there, and that all division of languages since, is to be looked upon as the effect of that curfe.

It being thus manifested what a strange confusion of languages was caused in the world, we may thereby easily understand how the ancient tradition came to be corrupted and al-

tered in the world.

Another reason of the alteration of the ancient tradition. was, the fabulousness of the Poets: for these made it their defign to disquise all their ancient stories under Fables, in which they were to loft, that they could never recover them afterwards. For the elder Poets of Greece being men of greater learning than generally the people were of, and being conversant in Agypt and other parts, did bring in new reports of the ancient times which they received from the Nations they went to; and by mixing their own traditions and others together, and by fuiting what was remaining of the ancient tradition to these, they must needs make a strange confusion of things together, and leave them much more obscure and fabulous than they found them. And herein all their cunning and subtilty lay in putting a new face on whatever they borrowed from other Nations, and making them appear among themselves in a Greek habit, that the former owners of those traditions could scarce challenge them as theirs under fo strange a Metamorphosis. For those things which were most plain and historical in the Fountains whence they derived them, they did so regered as Clemens Alexandrinus speaks, (or as Origen, παρακέπυντές ἀνέπλασαν) wrapt them up Stromat. 6. c. under fo great Mythology that the Original Truths can hardly Celf. 1. 4. be discerned, because of that multitude of prodigious fables,

Sect. 5.

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with

with which they have inlaid them. But as great as their artifice was in the doing this, we may yet differn apparently many of those particular courses which were taken by them to

disguise and alter the primitive tradition.

I. Attributing what was done by the great Ancestors of mankind to some persons of their own Nations. Thus the Thessalians make Deucalian to be the person who escaped the flood, and from whom the world was peopled after it. And whoever compares the relation of the flood of Deucalion in Apollodorus with that in the Scripture, might easily render Apollodorus his Greek in the language of the Scriptures, only changing Greece into the whole earth, and Deucalion into Noah, Parnassius into Ararat, and Jupiter into Febovah. On the same account the Athenians attribute the flood to Ogyges, not that the flood of Ogyges and Deucalion were particular and distinct deluges, which many have taken a great deal of needless pains to place in their several ages: But as Deucalion was of the eldest memory in Thessaly, so was Ogrges at Athens, and so the flood as being a matter of remotest Antiquity, was on the same account in both places attributed to both these. Because as mankind was supposed to begin again after the flood, fo they had among them no memory extant of any elder than these two, from whom on that account they supposed mankind derived. And on the same reason it may be supposed that the Assyrians attribute the flood to Xifuthrus, whom they supposed to be a King of Assyria; but the circumstances of the story as delivered by Alexander Polybistor, and Abydenus, are such as make it clear to be only Apud Cyril.c. a remainder of the universal flood which happened in the time of Noah. So the Thessalians make Prometheus to be the Protoclast; the Peleponnesians Phoroneus, as Clemens Alexandrinus tells us, whom Phoronides the Poet calls marine The Father of mankind. This may be now the first way of corrupting the ancient tradition, by supposing all that was conveyed by it to have been acted among themfelves. which may be imputed partly to their ignorance of the state of their ancient times, and partly to their pride, lest they should seem to come behind others in matters of

Apollod. biblioth. l. 1. p. 19.

Julian, lib.t 1.

Strom. 1. I.

Antiquity.

2. Another fountain of Heathen Mythology, was the taking the Idiom of the Oriental languages in a proper sence. For whether we suppose the ancient traditions were conveyed to them in the ancient Hebrew by the Fela it, or were delivered to them by the Phanicians, or were fetched out of the Scriptures themselves (as some suppose, though improbably of Homer and some ancient Poets) yet all these several ways agreeing in this, that the traditions were Oriental, we thereby understand how much of their Mythology came by taking the Hebrew in a proper and literal sence without attending to the Idiom of the tongue. From hence Bochartus hath ingeniously fetched many Heathen Fables. Thus when Noah is faid to be איש האדמה Gen. 9. 20. which in the Idiom of the Hebrew only fignifies a busbandman, they took it in a proper sence for o aving this yis, and thence Saturn who was the fame with Noah (as will appear afterwards) is made by Mythologists the husband of Rhea which was the same with the Earth So the Gyants making war against Heaven, was only a Poetical adumbration of the design at the building of Babel, whose top in the Scripture is faid to reach בשמים which in the Hebrew fignifies only Gen. 11. 4. a great beight; but to aggrandize the Story, was taken in the literal interpretation that they attempted Heaven. So when they are said to fight against the Gods, Bochartus thinks it might be taken from that phrase of Nimrod, that he was a mighty hunter That is before the Lord we render it, but it sometimes signifies against the Lord. So what Abydenus Apud Euseb. faith of the Gyants, that they were in This wins avagortes, those Prap. Evang. 1. that came out of the earth, is supposed to be taken from that 9. phrase, Gen. 10. 11. 231 7727 10, e terra ipsa exiit. But far more likely and probable is that which learned men are generally agreed in concerning Bacchus his being born of Fupiter's thigh, which is only an expression of that Hebraism 1831 ירכו wherein coming out of the thigh is a phrase for ordinary Gen. 46. 6. procreation.

3. A third way observable, is, the alteration of the names in the ancient tradition, and putting names of like importance to them in their own language. Thus fupiter who was the same with Cham, was called Zews & λω ζέσιν, as DI, from DDI fervere, incalescere. ᾿Αριμῶν Ϫ ᾿Αιχύπθιοι τικάκοι τ Α a a a 2 Δία,

3.

I.

Dia, faith Herodotus; him whom the Greeks call Zevs, the Ægyptians call Cham. So Fapheth, whose memory was preserved under Neptune, to whose portion the Islands in the Phaleg L.I. cap. Sea fell, was called by the Greeks Hoselson, which comes (faith Bochartus) from the Punick with which signifies large and broad, which is the very importance of the Hebrew thence in allusion to the name, it is faid, Gen 9 27. TA, היטול ביות God fall enlarge faphet. Thence the Epithetes of Neplune are eugúsegro, eugúo, eugungeior, all equally alluding to the name faphet. So 'Amadou in the Greek is of the same importance with the Heb. TU, Damon, from TTU to destroy. Thence we read, Deut. 32. 17: they sacrificed בירים, to Devils. Canaan in the Hebrew fignifies a Merchant; thence Mercury, under whom the memory of Canaan the fon of Cham was preserved is derived, by many from 722, to fell. Ceres which was the Inventress of Agriculture, from will which imports bread-corn. These and many others are produced by Vossius, Heinstus, Bochartus and other learned men, which I infift not on, because my defign is only digitos ad fontes intendere, and to make these handfome and probable conjectures, argumentative to our purpose, and to bind up those loose and scattering observations into. some order and method, in which they have not yet appeared, nor been improved to that end which I make use of them for.

4 When the Oriental phrales were ambiguous and equivocal, they omitted that fence which was plain and obvious, and took that which was more strange and fabulous. From hence the learned Bochartus hath fetched the Fable of the golden Fleece, which was nothing else but the robbing the Treafury of the King of Colchis; but it was disguised under the name of the golden Fleece, because the Syriack word \$13 fignifies both a Fleece and a Treasury. So the Bulls and Dragons which kept it, were nothing but the walls and brass gates; for nw, fignifies both a Bull and a Wall, and wn Brass, and a Dragon. And fo the Fable of the Brass-Bull in the mountain Atabyrius which foretold calamities, arose from the aquivocation of the Phanician or Hebrery words while Fire which fignifie either Doctor Augur, or bos ex are, a foreteller of events or a brazen Bull. From the like Ambiguity of the word 20 72 arose the Fable of Jupiter stealing Europa in the

the form of a Bull, because the word either signifies a Ship in which he conveyed her way, or a Bull; or it may be the Ship had a farmuor bowis, as the ship St. Paul sailed in had Castor and Pollux, it being usual to call their Ships by the names of the figns they carried. From the like aquivocation in the Phanician language doth Bochartus fetch many other Heathen Fables, in his excellent piece de Phanicum Coloniis, as particularly that of Arethu a coming from Alpheus, which Canaan I. I. was from 1278 a Ship, because it was not far from an Ex- cap. 28. cellent Haven. And so he makes the Chimara to be more than a mere ens rationis; for he takes the Chimara which Bellerophon conquered, to be only the people of Solymi under the three Generals, Arrus, Trosibis, and Arsalus; it that fignifies a Lion; Trosibis was XIII UNI the head of a Ser-Canaan.l.i.c.6. pent: Arfalus was 717 718 a young kid, and so the Chimæra consisted of the form of a Lyon, a Goat, and a Serpent. Thus we see how easie a matter it was to advance the Heathen Mythology from the equivocation of the Oriental Languages, in which their Traditions were conveyed to them.

But yet a more prolifick principle of Mythology was by attributing the actions of several persons to one who was the first or the chief of them. Thus it was in the stories of Jupiter, Neptune, Mars, Mercury, Minerva, Juno, Bacchus and Hercules, which were a collection of the actions done by a multitude of persons, which were all attributed to one person. So Vossius tells us before the time of the Trojan Wars, most of De Idel. 1. 1. their Kings, who were renowned and powerful, were called Forces. Now when the actions of all these are attributed to one Jupiter of Creet, they must needs swell his story up with abundance of Fables. Vollius hath taken a great deal of pains to digest in an historical manner the stories of the several Jupiters, whereof he reckons two Argives, a third the Father of Hercules, a fourth a King of Phrygia, and two more of Creet; to one of which, without any distinction, the actions of all the rest were ascribed, and who was worshipped under the name of Jupiter. And so besides the ancient Neptune, who was the same with Faphet, they sometimes understood any Infular Prince, or one that had great power at Sea; but befides these, there were two famous Neptures among

Sett. 6.

9.

Cicero I. 3. de Latur. D.

the Greeks, the one of Athens, the other the builder of the walls of Tray: now the stories of all these being mixed together, muit needs make a strange confusion. So for Mars, befides that ancient one they had by the Oriental tradition. they had a Spartan, Thracian, and Arcadian Mars. What abundance of Mercuries are we told of by Tully? and of no less than five Minerva's? Every angry, scornful, jealous Queen would fill up the Fables of Juno, who was equally claimed by the Argives and Samians. What contests were there between the Greeks and Egyptians concerning the Country of Bacchus, or Liber Pater, whose story was made up of many patches of the Oriental story, as will appear afterwards. The fame may be faid of Hercules. Now what a strange way was this to increase the number of Fables? when they had one whose memory was anciently preserved among them, they attributed the actions of all fuch to him, who came near him in that which his memory was most remarkable for: And in those things which they did retain of the Eastern tradition, it was an usual thing to confound persons, places and actions together. So the story of Enoch and Methuselah is joyned together by Stephanus de Urbibus, under Steph. V. "Aythe name of Annan , who is there faid to live above 200 years (which agrees with Enoch as the name doth) and that at his death the world should be destroyed by a Flood; which agrees with Methuselah. So Abraham by Orpheus is called movogerns, which belongs to Isaac his Son; so the actions of Nimred, Ninus and Cham, are confounded together in their Mythology. By these several ways now we understand how the original tradition was by degrees corrupted and altered in the Heathen Mythology.

Sect. 7.

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withstanding these corruptions, may be discerned in the Heathen Mythology, which I shall methodically enquire after according to the series of Scripture-history. That the names given V. Scaliger. not. to God in Scripture were preferved among the Phanicians, appears sufficiently by the remainders of the Phanician Theology, Selden. de Diis translated by Philo Byblius out of Sanchoniathon; wherein we read of the God Iva, which hath the same letters with init; besides which there we meet with באוניין, the same with עליון

the most High, and "INO, which is the strong God;

I come now to the footsteps of Scripture-bistory which not-

Bochart. Cana. 1. 2. 6. 2.

in fr. Grac.

Beelsaman,

Beelfaman, which is, you be God of Heaven, and Exweige, the very name of God used in the beginning of Genesis so often. Besides, in those fragments we have express mention of the Chaos, and the evening following it, or the darkness on the face of the Deep; the Creation of Angels under the Copaonin, Dian it those beings which contemplate the Heavens: and the Creation of mankind in To NOATE aνέμε, i. e. הור פי יה faith Bochartus, the voice of the mouth of God, which is by God's word and inspiration, when it is expressed that God said, Let us make man, and that he breathed into him the breath of life. After we read of viivo and αὐτόχθων, which properly agree to Adam, who was made out of the Earth. Vossius conceives that the memory of A. De Idal. 1. 1. dam was preferved among the old Germans, of whom Ta-cap. 38. citus speaks, Celebrant antiquis carminibus Tuistonem Deum Tacit de morib. terra editum, & filium Mannum, originem gentis, condito-German. resque. Either by Tuisto Adam is understood, who was formed of the Earth, and by Mannus, Noah: or by Tuifto God may be understood, and by Mannus, Adam; to which conjecture may be added further that the same Author reports that some of the Germans sacrificed to Isis, which Vossius likewise conceives to be a remainder of the Hebrew Ilcha. And so among the Egyptians it is with like probability conceived that Adam and Ischa were preserved under O-Gris and Iss, as they were historically taken. In Cilicia, the City Adana is thought to have some remainder of the name of Adam; for the Greeks had no termination in M, therefore for Adam they pronounced it Adam, and that from 'Asaros, and so the City Adana: Now that 'Adavos, by Stephanus de Urbibus, is faid to be the Son of Heaven and Earth. "Es 3 & Stephanus V. 'Adavas yns n' seaus mais. This Adamus, he tells us, was other- "Adava. wife called Kein or Saturn, under whom the Greeks preferved the memory of Adam; for Diodorus, Thallus, Cassius, Severus, and Cornelius Nepos, do all (as Tertullian faith) con- Apolog. c. 10. fess Saturn to have been a man; and according to their Fables, he must have been the first of men. Saturn was the Son of Heaven and Earth, and so was Adam: he taught men husbandry; and was not Adam the first that tilled the ground? Besides, that power which Saturn had, and was deposed from, doth fitly fet out the Dominion man had in the Golden Age

of Innocency which he lost by his own folly. And Adam's hiding himself from the presence of the Lord, gave occasion to the name of Saturn, from Satar to hide. We find something of Cain preferved in the Phanician antiquities, under the name of "Azesne @ or 'Aysims, the first Countryman or Husbandman, who with his brother 'Aygo's built houses, and the first foundation of a City is attributed to Cain: And on that account Vossius conjectures Voff. de Idall. 1. that the memory of Cainswife was preserved under Vesta, both

E. 17.

because she was the daughter of Saturn, i.e. of Adam, and that the is faid TWV o'x WV RATAGREUNY EUGETV, to find out first the way of building bouses. That Tubal-Cain gave first occasion to the name and worship of Vulcan, hath been very probably conceived, both from the very great affinity of the names, and that Tubal-Cain is expresly mentioned to be an Instructor of every Artificer in brass and iron; and as near relation as Apollo had to Vulcan, fubal had to Tubal-Cain, who was the Inwenter of Musick, or the Father of all such as handle the

4.21.

Harp and Organ; which the Greeks attribute to Apollo. And if that be true which Genebrard and others ascribe to Naamah, the fifter of Jubal and Tubal Cain, viz. that the was the inventer of Spinning and Weaving, then may the come in for Minerva. Thus we fee there were some, though but obscure foot-steps preserved, even of that part of Scrlpture-history which preceded the Flood. The memory of the Deluge it self we have already found

to be preserved in the Heathen Mythology; we come therefore

Seft. 8.

to Noah and his posterity. Many parcels of Noah's memory were preserved in the scattered fragments of many Fables, un-Phaleg.l. 1. c.1. der, Saturn, Janus, Prometheus, and Bacchus. Bechartus insifts on no fewer than 14 Parallels between Noah and the Heathen Saturn; which he faith are so plain, that there is no doubt but under Saturn, Noah was understood in the Heathen Mythology. Saturn was faid to be the common Parent of Mankind, so was Noah; Saturn was a just King, Noah not only righteous himself, but a Preacher of righteousness; The golden Age of Saturn was between Noah and the disperfion of Nations. In Noah's time all mankind had but one Language, which the Heathens extend under Saturn, both to men and beasts: The plantation of Vines attributed to Saturn by the Heathens, as to Noah by the Scriptures: The Law of Saturn mentioned

mentioned by the Poets, that none should see the nakedness of the Gods without punishment, seems to respect the fact and curse of Cham, in reference to Noah. Saturn and Rhea, and those with them are said to be born of Thetis, or the Ocean, which plainly alludes to Noah and his companies escaping the Flood; thence a Ship was the symbol of Saturn; and that Saturn devoured all his children, feems to be nothing else but the destruction of the old world by Noah's flood. And not only under Saturn, but under Prometheus too, was Noah's memory preserved. Diodorus speaks of the great flood under Prometheus; Biblioth. 1. 1. and Prometheus implies one that hath forecast and wisdom. fuch as Noah had, whereby he foretold the floud, and was faved in it, when others were Epimetheus's, that had not wit

to prevent their own destruction.

And no wonder if Prometheus were Noah; that the forming mankind was attributed to him, when the world was peopled from him. Herodotus his faying that Asia was Prometheus his wife, might relate to the Countrey Noah lived in, and our propagation from thence. Another part of Noah's memory was preserved under Janus; the name of Janus is most probably derived from in, because of Noah's planting a Vine, and Fanus was called Consivins, saith Macrobius, à conserendo, boc V. Mayer. Phiest, à propagine generis humani, quæ fano autore conseritur; lol. sacr. p. 2. now to whom can this be so properly applied as to Noah from 6.5. whom mankind was propagated? and Fanus his being bifrons or looking negowa is oriow, forward and backward, is not To fit an emblem of any thing as of Noah's feeing those two ages before and after the flood. And it is further observable which Plutarch speaks of in his Roman questions, that the ancient coins had on one fide the image of Janus with his two faces, on the other πλοίε πεύμναν η πεέεραν έγκεχαραγμώθω, the fore or hinder part of the (hip, by which the memory of the Ark of Noah feems to have been preserved. Thus we see what Analogy there is in the story of Janus with that of Noab; not that I give credit to those fooleries which tell us of Noah's coming from Palæstine with his son Faphet into Italy and planting Colonies there, for which we are beholding to the fpurious Ethruscan Antiquities; but all that I affert is, that the story of Noah might be preserved in the eldest Colonies, though disguised under other names, as here in the case of Fanus: Bbbb And

Biblioth.

And on the same account that the name of Janus is attributed to Noah, some likewise believe him to have been the most ancient Bacchus, who was according to Diodorus evening & dumina, the first planter of Vines and instructer of men in making Wines; and besides, Bacchus his being twice born seems only an adumbration of Noah's preservation after the flood, which might be accounted a second nativity when the rest of the world was destroyed; and withall Philostratus in the life of Apollonius relates that the ancient Indian Bacchus came thither out of Assiria, which yet more fully agrees with Noah. So that from these scattered members of Hippolytus and these broken fragments of traditions, we may gather almost an entire history of all the passages concerning Noah.

Sett. 9.

Philostr. c. 4.

Voff. de Idol. l. 1. c. 18. Boch. Phaleg. l.1. c.1. cap.2.

As the story of Saturn and Noah do much agree, so the three fons of Noah and those of Saturn, Jupiter, Neptune, and Pluto have their peculiar refemblances to each other. Of which Vossius and Bochartus have largely spoken, and we have touched on already. Besides which this latter Author hath carried the parallel lower, and finds Canaan the fon of Cham, the same with Mercury the son of Jupiter; as it was the curse of Canaan to be a servant of servants, so Mercury is always described under servile employments; his wings seem to be the ships of the Phanicians who were derived from Canaan, and his being the God of trade, noting the great Merchandize of the Phanicians, and Mercury's thievery noting the Pyracies, or at least the subtilty and craft of the Phanicians; he was the Father of eloquence and Astronomy, as letters and Astronomy came from the Phanicians into Greece. The same Author parallels Nimrod and Bacchus, and Magog and Prometheus together. The name of Bacchus is but a light variation of win 72, Bar-chus, as Nimrod was the fon of Chus, and Bacchus is called Nebrodes by the Greeks, which is the very name of Nimrod among them, and Bacchus is called Zwyeev's. which excellently interprets Nimrod's being a mighty bunter. Bacchus his expeditions into India were the attempts of Nimrod and the Assyrian Emperors. On which account Vossius makes Nimrod or Belus the most ancient Mars; for Hestiaus Milefius speaks of Enyalius which is Mars, his being in Sennaar of Babylonia. That the memory of Magog was preferved under Prometheus, these things make it probable, that Magog

De Idol. l. 1.

was the son of Faphet, as Prometheus of Iapetus, and that the posterity of Magog was placed about Caucasus, where Prometheus is feigned to lie: and the eating of Prometheus his heart, is only an interpretation of and which applied to the beart fignifies to waste away and be consumed. Thus far Bochartus.

The Phanician antiquities feem to have preserved the memory of Abraham's (acrificing his fon Isaac, by that place which Eulebius produceth out of Porphyrie's book concerning the Fews; where he relates, how Saturn whom the Phænicians call Israel, when he reigned in those parts, and had an only Son called Toud of a nymph called Anobret, being under some V. Scaliger not. great calamity, did sacrifice that son of his being cloathed with ad fr. Gr. a royal habit. Here we have a royal person called Israel; and that Abraham should be accounted a King in those elder times, is nothing strange, considering his wealth, and what petty royalies there were in those times. But Grotius, and from him Grot, in Deut, Vollius, do not think that Abraham was here called I/rael, but c. 18. v. 10. that the transcriber of Eulebius meeting with in supposed it to Vost. de Idol. be a contraction of lacana, and so writ it at length, it must be 1.1. c. 18. acknowledged that in is used in the Phanician Theology for Saturn, but yet the circumstances of the story make the ordinary reading not improbable; neither is it strange, that Abraham should be called by the name of the People which he was the Progenitor of. That Isaac should be meant by his only fon called Found is most likely; for when God bids Abraham go facrifice him, he faith, Take thy fon Tit, thy onely fon; Gen. 22. 1. febid is the same with the Phanician found. That Sara is meant by Anobret, the original of the name implies, which is as Bochartus derives it חוברון זה, Annobereft, that is, ex gratia concipiens, which the Apostle explains, Through faith Sara De Phanic, col. her self received strength to conceive seed. Now all the dif- 1. 2. c. 2. ference is, that which was only defigned and intended by A- Heb. 11. 11. braham, was believed by the Phanicians as really done, that it might be as a precedent to them for their dr 3ew 7030 of au, facrificing of men, a thing so much in use among the Phanicians, and all the Colonies derived from them, as many learned men have at large shewed. But besides this, there are particular testimonies concerning Abraham, his age, wisdom and knowledge, his coming out of Chaldea, and the propagation of knowledge from him among the Chaldaans, Phanicians, and

Bbbb 2

Egypti-

1. s. c. 7. Euseb. Prap. Evang. 1.9. c.16.

Sect 10.

Callimach. Hymn. in Apollo.

Gen. 28. 18.

Gr. Bochart. Can. l. 2. c. 2. Sold. de Diis Syris. V. Heinf. in Glem. Alex. Str. 7. Casaubon. ad Theoph. p.1295. nob. l. 1. Colvium ad Apul. Florid. Ouzel. & Elmenborst ad Minuc. de Idolola. l.1. 6.29.

Joseph. Antiq. Agyptians, are extant out of Berosus, Eupolemus, and others in Fosephus and Eusebius, and from thence transcribed by many learned men, which on that account I forbear transcribing, as being common and obvious.

Some have not improbably conjectured, that the memory of Facob's long peregrination, and service with his Uncle Laban, was preserved under the story of Apollo his banishment and being a Shepherd under Admetus. For Callimachus reports that Love was the cause of Apollo's travails, as it was of Facob's, and withall mentions a strange increase of Cattel under Apollo's care, answerable to what the Scripture reports concerning facob. But it is more certain, that the memory of facob's fetting up the stone he had rested on for a pillar. and pouring onl upon it, and calling the place Bethel, was pre-Scal not in fr. served under the anointed stones which the Phanicians from Bethel called Bain'Aia, as hath been frequently observed by learned men, from whence came the custom of anointing stones among the Heathens, of which fo very many have largely Thence the Proverb of a superstitious man, discoursed. παίν α λί θον λιπαρον τροσκυνώ, which Arnobius calls lubricatum lapidem & ex olivi unquine sordidatum. It feems the anointing the stones with oyl, was then the symbol of the confecration Herald. ad Ar- of them. The name Bains G for fuch a stone occurrs in Hesychius, the Greek Etymologist, Damascius in Photius, and others. That the memory of Foseph in Agypt was preserved under the Agyptian Apis, hath been shewed with a great deal of probability by the learned Vossius, in his often cited piece of Idolatry, from the testimonies of Julius Maternus, Rufinus, and Suidas; and from these three arguments. 1. The greatness of the benefit which the Agyptians received by Foseph: which was of that nature that it could not easily be forgot. and that no symbol was so proper to set it out as the £gyptian Apis; because the famine was portended by lean Kine, and the plenty by fat; and Minucius at Rome, for relieving the People in a time of famine, had a statue of a golden Bull erected to his memory. 2. The Agyptians were not backward to testifie their respect to Foseph, as appears by Pharaob's rewarding him; now it was the custom of the Egyptians to preserve the memories of their great Benefactors by some symbols to posterity; which were at first intended only for a civil

civil use, although they were after abused to Superstition and Idolatry. 2. From the names of Apis and Serapis. Apis he conceives to be the facred name of Foleph among the Agypeians, and is as much as 28, Father; for Foseph himself saith, Gen. 45. 8. he was as a Father to Pharaoh. And Serapis, as Rufinus and Suidas both tell us, had a bushel upon his head, and Serapis is probably derived from Ju, Sor, which fignifies a Bull, and Apis. So that by this means the story of Foseph is attested by the Agyptians superstitions, of which they can give no account fo likely as this is.

Many things concerning Moles are preserved in the story of Sect. 11. Bacchus, not that from thence we are to concluded that Mofes was the Bacchus of the Greeks, as Vossius thinks, but they took several parts of the Eastern traditions concerning him, which they might have from the Phanicians who came with Cadmus into Greece, while the memory of Moses was yet fresh among the Canaanites. In the story of Bacchus, as Vossus ob. De Idel. 1. 1. ferves, it is expresly said, that he was born in Agypt, and that c. 30. foon after his birth he was put in an Ark, and exposed to the River, which tradition was preserved among the Brasiata of Laconica: and Bacchus in Orpheus is called Mions, and by Plutarch de Iside & Osiride, Palæstinus: and he is called Bind Twe which agrees to Moles, who, befides his own Mother, was adopted by Pharaoh's daughter: Bacchus was likewise commended for his beauty as Moses was, and was said to be educated in a Mount of Arabia called Nyla, which agrees with Moles his residence in Arabia forty years; so Plutarch mentions φυρώς Διονύσε the banishments of Bacchus, and Nonnus menti- Dion. 1, 20. ons Bacchus his flight into the Red-sea: who likewise mentions his battles in Arabia and with the neighbouring Princes there. Diodorus faith, that Bacchus his Army had not only men but women in it; which is most true of the company which Bibl. I. de Moses led. Orpheus calls Bacchus Deomogogov, and attributes to him Sinnana Sequir, whereby we understand Moses his being a Legislator, and that he delivered the Law in two Tables. Moses his fetching water out of a rock with his rod, is preferved in the Orgia of Bacchus, in which Euripides relates that Agave and the rest of the Baccha celebrating the Orgia, one of them touched a rock, and the water came out: and in the same Orgia Euripides reports how they were wont to

Crown.

Canaan. l. 1.

their heads with Serpents, probably in memory of the cure of the fiery Serpents in the Wilderness. A dog is made the companion of Bacchus, which is the fignification of Caleb, who so faithfully adhered to Moses. To these and some other circumstances insisted on by Vossius, Bochartus adds two more very confiderable ones; which are, that Nonnus reports of Bacchus that he touched the two rivers Orontes and Hydaspes with his thyrsus, or rod, and that the rivers dried, and he passed through them: and that his Ivy-staff being thrown upon the ground, crept up and down like a Serpent, and that the Indians were in darkness while the Bacchæ enjoyed light: which circumstances considered will make every one that hath judgment say as Bochartus doth; ex mirabili illo consensu vel cœcis apparebit priscos fabularum architectos è scriptoribus sacris multa esse mutuatos. From this wonderfull agreement of Heathen Mythology with the Scriptures, it cannot but appear that one is a corruption of the other. That the memory of Foshua and Sampson was preserved under Hercules Tyriw, is made likewise very probable from several circumstances of the stories. Others have deduced the many rites of Heathen worship from those used in the Tabernacle among the Fews. Several others might be infifted on, as the Parallel between Og and Typho, and between the old Silenus and Balaam, both noted for their skill in divination, both taken by the water, Num. 22. 5. both noted for riding on an AB: 8π ονε τὰ πολλά οχέμθυ D, faith Lucian of the old Silenus; and that which makes it yet more probable, is that of Paulanias, εν οδ τη Έβραίων χώρα Σικίως μνήμα, which some learned men have been much puzled to find out the truth of; and this conjecture which I here propound, may pass at least for a probable account of it; but I shall no longer insist on these things, having, I suppose, done what is sufficient to our purpose, which is, to make it appear what footsteps there are of the truth of Scripture-history amidst all the corruptions of Heathen Mythology.

De Deor. Con. Eliacon. 2. P. 203.

De Idol. 1. 1. c. 26. p. 188.

p. 169.

CHAP. VI.

Of the Excellency of the Scriptures.

Concerning matters of pure divine revelation in Coripture: the terms of Salvation only contained therein. The ground of the disesteem of the Scripture is tacite unbelief. The Excellency of the Scriptures manifested as to the matters which God bath revealed therein. The Excellency of the discoveries of God's nature which are in Scripture. Of the goodneß and love of God in Christ. The suitableneß of those discoveries of God to our natural notions of a Deity. The necessity of God's making known himself to us in order to the regulating our conceptions of him. The Scriptures give the fullest account of the state of men's souls, and the corruptions which are in them. The only way of pleasing God discovered in Scriptures. The Scriptures contain matters of greatest mysteriousness, and most universal satisfaction to men's minds. The Excellency of the manner wherein things are revealed in Scriptures, in regard of clearness, authority, purity, uniformity, and persuasiveness. The Excellency of the Scriptures as a rule of life. The nature of the duties of Religion and the reasonableness of them. The greatness of the encouragements to Religion contained in the Scriptures. The great Excellency of the Scriptures, as containing in them the Covenant of Grace in order to man's Salvation,

Aving thus largely proved the Truth of all those passages of sacred Scripture which concern the history of the first ages of the world, by all those arguments which a subject of that nature is capable of, the only thing left in order to our full proving the Divinity of the Scriptures, is, the consideration of those matters contained in it, which are in an especial manner said to be of Divine Revelation. For those historical passages, though we believe them as contained in the Scripture, to have been Divinely inspired as well as others: yet they are such things as supposing no Divine Revelation, might have been known sufficiently to the world, had

Sect. I.

had not men been wanting to themselves as to the care and means of preserving them; but those matters which I now come to discourse of, are of a more sublime and transcendent nature, fuch as it had been impossible for the minds of men to reach, had they not been immediately discovered by God himself. And those are the terms and conditions on which the Soul of man may upon good grounds expect an eternal bappiness, which we affert the Book of Scriptures to be the only authentick and infallible records of. Men might by the improvements of reason and the sagacity of their minds discover much, not only of the lap(ed condition of their fouls, and the necessity of a purgation of them, in order to their felicity, but might in the general know what things are pleasing and acceptable to the Divine Nature, from those differences of good and evil which are unalterably fixed in the things themselves; but which way to obtain any certainty of the remission of sins, to recover the Grace and Favour of God, to enjoy perfect tranquillity and peace of conscience, to be able to please God in things agreeable to his Will, and by these to be assured of eternal blis, had been impossible for men to have ever found, had not God himself been graciously pleased to reveal them to us. Men might still have bewildred themselves in following the ignes fatui of their own imaginations, and hunting up and down the world for a path which leads to Heaven, but could have found none, unless God himself taking pity of the wandrings of men had been pleased to hang out a light from Heaven to direct them in their way thither, and by this Pharos of Divine Revelation to direct them so to feer their course, as to escape plitting themselves on the rocks of open impieties, or being swallowed up in the quick-sands of terrene delights. Neither doth he shew them only what shelves and rocks they must escape, but what particular course they must steer, what far they must have in their eye, what compass they must observe, what winds and gales they must expect and pray for, if they would at last arrive at eternal blis. Eternal blis! What more could a God of infinite goodness promise, or the foul of man ever wish for? A Reward to such who are so far from deserving, that they are still provoking; Glory to

to fuch who are more apt to be ashamed of their duties, than of their offences; but that it should not only be a glorious reward, but evernal too, is that which thoughit infinitely transcend the deserts of the receivers, yet it highly discovers the infinite goodness of the Giver. But when we not only know that there is so rich a mine of inestimable treasures, but if the owner of it undertakes to shew us the way to it, and gives us certain and infallible directions how to come to the full possession of it, how much are we in love with misery, and do we court our own ruin, if we neglect to hearken to his di-

rections, and observe his commands!

This is that we are now undertaking to make good concerning the Scriptures, that these alone contain those sacred discoveries by which the souls of men may come at last to enjoy a compleat and eternal happiness. One would think there could be nothing more needless in the world than to bid men regard their own welfare, and to feek to be happy; yet whoever casts his eye into the world, will find no counfel so little bearkned to as this, nor any thing which is more generally looked on as a matter trivial and impertinent. Which cannot arise but from one of these two grounds, that either they think it no great wisdom to let go their present hold as to the good things of this world, for that which they fecretly question whether they shall ever live to see or no; or else that their minds are in suspense, whether they be not fent on a Guiana voyage to Heaven, whether the certainty of it be yet fully discovered, or the instructions which are given be such as may infallibly conduct them thither. The first, though it hath the advantage of sense, fruition, delight, and further expectation; yet to a rational person who seriously reflects on himself, and sums up what (after all his troubles and disquietments in the procuring, his cares in keeping, his disappointments in his expectations, his fears of losing what he doth enjoy, and that vexation of spirit which attends all these) he hath gained of true contentment to his mind, can never certainly believe that ever these things were intended for his bappiness. For is it possible that the soul of man should ever enjoy its full and compleat happines in this world, when nothing is able to make it happy, but what is Cccc

Se &t. 2.

most suitable to its nature, able to fill up its large capacity, and commensurate with its duration: but in this life the matter of mens greatest delights is strangely unsuitable to the nature of our rational beings, the measure of them too short for our vast defires to stretch themselves upon; the proportion too feant and narrow to run parallel with immortality. It must be then only a Supream, Infinite and Eternal Being, which by the free communications of his bounty and goodness can fix and fatiate the fouls defires, and by the conftant flowings forth of his uninterrupted streams of favour will always keep up defire, and yet always fatisfie it: One whose goodness can only be felt by some transient touches here, whose love can be feen but as through a lattice, whose constant presence may be rather wished for than enjoyed, who hath referved the full fight and fruition of himself to that future frate when all these dark veils shall be done way, and the foul shall be continually funning her self under immediate beams of light and love. But how or in what way the foul of man in this degenerate condition should come to be partaker of fo great a happiness, by the enjoyment of that God our natures are now at such a distance from, is the greatest and most important enquiry of humane nature: and we continually fee how fuccesses and unsatisfactory the endeavours of those have been to themselves at last. who have fought for this bappines in a way of their own finding out; The large volume of the Creation, wherein God hath described so much of his wildom and power, is yet too dark and obscure, too short and impersect to set forth to us the way which leads to eternal happiness. Unless then the same God who made mens souls at first, do fliew them the way for their recovery; as they are in a degenerate, so they will be in a desperate condition; but the same bounty and goodness of God, which did at first difplay it felf in giving being to mens fouls, hath in a higher manner enlarged the discovery of it self, by making known the way whereby we may be taken into his Grace and Favour again.

Which it now concerns us particularly to discover, thereby to make it appear that this way is of that peculiar excellency, that we may have from thence the greatest evidence. it could come from no other Author but God himself and doth tend to no other end but our eternal happiness. Now that incomparable excellency which is in the facred Scriptures, will fully appear, if we consider the matters contained in them under this threefold capacity. I. As matters of Divine Revelation. 2. As a rule of life. 3. As containing that Covenant of grace which relates to mans eternal happine s.

1. Consider the Scripture generally, as containing in it matters of divine revelation, and therein the excellency of the Scriptures appears in two things. 1. The matters which are revealed. 2. The manner wherein they are re-

vealed.

1. The matters which are revealed in Scripture, may be confidered these three ways. I. As they are matters of the greatest weight and moment. 2. As matters of the greatest depth and mysteriousness. 2. As matters of the most universal

satisfaction to the minds of men.

1. They are matters of the greatest moment and importance for men to know. The wisdom of men is most known by the weight of the things they speak; and therefore that wherein the wisdom of God is discovered, cannot contain any thing that is mean and trivial; they must be matters of the highest importance, which the Supreme Ruler of the world vouchfafes to fpeak to men concerning: And fuch we shall find the matters which God hath revealed in his word to be, which either concern the rectifying our apprehensions of his nature, or making known to men their state and condition, or discovering the way whereby to avoid eternal misery. Now which is there of these three, which supposing God to discover his mind to the world, it doth not highly become him to speak to men of?

1. What is there which doth more highly concern men Sect. 4. to know than God himself? or what more glorious and excellent object could be discover than bimself to the world? There is nothing certainly which should more commend the

Scriptures to us, than that thereby we may grow more acquainted with God; that we may know more of his nature, and all his perfections, and many of the great reasons of his actings in the world. We may by them understand with fafety what the eternal purpoles of God were as to the way of mans recovery by the death of his Son; we may there fee and understand the great wisdom of God; not only in the contrivance of the world, and ordering of it, but in the gradual revelations of himself to his people, by what steps he trained up his Church till the fullness of time was come; what his aim was in laying such a load of Ceremonies on his people of the Fews; by what steps and degrees he made way for the full revelation of his Will to the World by speaking in these last days by his Son, after he had spoke at sundry times and divers manners by the Prophets, &c. unto the Fathers. In the Scriptures we read the most rich and admirable discoveries of Divine goodness, and all the ways and methods he useth in alluring finners to himself, with what Majesty he commands, with what condescention he intreats, with what impertunity he wooes men's fouls to be reconciled to him, with what favour he embraceth, with what tenderness he chastifeth, with what bowels he pitieth those who have chosen him to be their God! With what power he supporteth, with what wisdom he directeth, with what cordials he refresheth the fouls of fuch who are dejected under the sense of his displeafure, and yet their love is sincere towards him! With what profound humility, what holy boldness, what becoming distance, and yet what restless importunity do we therein find the fouls of God's people addressing themselves to him in prayer! With what cheerfulness do they serve him, with what confidence do they trust him, with what resolution do they adhere to him in all freights and difficulties, with what patience do they submit to his Will in their greatest extremities! How fearful are they of sinning against God, how careful to please him, how regardless of suffering, when they must choose either that or sinning, how little apprehenfive of mens displeasure, while they enjoy the favour of God! Now all these things which are so fully and pathetically expressed in Scripture, do abundantly set forth to us the

the exuberancy asd Pleonasm of God's grace and goodness towards his people, which makes them delight fo much in him, and be so sensible of his displeasure. But above all other discoveries of God's goodness, his sending his Son into the world to die for sinners, is that which the Scripture sets forth with the greatest Life and Eloquence. By Eloquence, I mean not an artificial composure of words, but the gravity, weight, and perswasiveness of the matter contained in them. And what can tend more to melt our frozen hearts into a current of thankful obedience to God, than the vigorous reflection of the beams of God's love through Fefus Christ upon us! Was there ever so great an expression of Love heard of! nay, was it possible to be imagined, that that God who perfectly hates sin, should himself offer the pardon of it, and fend his Son into the world to secure it to the sinner, who doth so heartily repent of his fins, as to deny himself, and take up his cross and follow Christ! Well might the Apostle fay, This is a faithful Saying, and worthy of all acceptation, 1 Tim. 1. 15: that Fesus Christ came into the world to save sinners. How dry and fapless are all the voluminous discourses of Philosephers, compared with this Sentence! How jejune and unfatisfactory are all the discoveries they had of God and his goodnels, in comparison of what we have by the Golpel of Christ! Well might Paul then fay, That he determined to know no- 1 Cor. 2.2 thing but Christ and him crucified. Christ crucified is the Library which triumphant souls will be studying in to all Eternity. This is the only Library which is the true largeou Ψυχης, that which cures the foul of all its maladies and distempers; other knowledge makes mens minds giddy and flatulent; this settles and composes them; other knowledge is apt to swell men into high conceits and opinions of themfelves; this brings them to the truest view of themselves, and thereby to humility and fobriety; Other knowledge leaves mens hearts as it found them; this alters them and makes them better. So transcendent an excellency is there in the knowledge of Christ crucified above the sublimest speculations in the world.

And is not this an inestimable benefit we enjoy by the . Sect. s. Scripture, that therein we can read and converie with all

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these expressions of God's love and goodness, and that in his own language? Shall we admire and praise what we meet with in Heathen Philosophers, which is generous and handfome; and shall we not adore the infinite fulness of the Scriptures, which run over with continued expressions of that and a higher nature? What folly is it to magnifie those lean kine, the notions of Philosophers, and to contemn the fut, the plenty and fulness of the Scriptures? If there be not far more valuable and excellent discoveries of the Divine Nature and Perfections; if there be not far more excellent directions and rules of practice in the sacred Scriptures, than in the sublimest of all the Philosophers, then let us leave our full ears, and feed upon the thin. But certainly no sober and rational furit that puts any value upon the knowledge of God. but on the same account that he doth prize the discourses of any Philosophers concerning God, he cannot but fet a value of a far higher nature on the word of God. And as the goodnels of God is thus discovered in Scripture, so is his Fustice and Holiness: we have therein recorded the most remarkable judgments of God upon contumacious finners, the feverest denunciations of a judgment to come against all that live in fin, the exactest precepts of boliness in the world; and what can be defired more to discover the Holine's of God, than we find in Scripture concerning him? If therefore acquaintance with the nature, perfections, designs of so excellent a Being as God is, be a thing defirable to humane nature, we have the greatest cause to admire the excellency and adore the fulness of the Scriptures which give us so large, rational, and compleat account of the Being and Attributes of God. And which tends yet more to commend the Scriptures to us. those things which the Scripture doth most fully discover concerning God, do not at all contradict those prime and common notions which are in our natures concerning him, but do exceedingly advance and improve them, and tend the most to regulate our conceptions and apprehensions of God, that we may not miscarry therein, as otherwise men are apt to do. For it being natural to men fo far to love themselves, as to set the greatest value upon those excellencies which they think themselves most masters of: thence

thence men came to be exceedingly mistaken in their apprehensions of a Deity, some attributing one thing as a perfe-Etion, another a different thing, according to their humours and inclinations. Thus imperious felf-willed men are apt to cry up God's absolute power and dominion as his greatest perfection; easie and soft-spirited men his patience and goodness; severe and rigid men his justice and severity: every one according to his bumour and temper, making his God of his own complexion: and not only fo, but in things remote enough from being perfections at all; yet because they are fuch things as they prize and value, they suppose of necessity they must be in God, as is evident in the Epicureans araogica, by which they excluded providence, as hath been already observed. And withall considering how very difficult it is for one who really believes that God is of a pure. just, and boly nature, and that he hath grievously offended him by his fins, to believe that this God will pardon him upon true repentance: It is thence necessary that God should make known himself to the world, to prevent our misconceptions of his nature, and to affure a suspicious, because guilty creature, how ready he is to pardon iniquity, transgression, and sin, to such as unfeignedly repent of their follies, and return unto himself. Though the light of nature may dictate much to us of the benignity and goodness of the Divine Nature, yet it is hard to conceive that that should discover further than God's general goodness to such as please him: but no foundation can be gathered thence of his readiness to pardon offenders, which being an act of grace, must alone be discovered by his Will. I cannot think the Sun, Moon, and Stars are such itinerant Preachers, as to unfold unto us the whole Counsel and Will of God in reference to man's acceptance with God upon repentance. It is not every Star in the firmament can do that which the Star once did to the wife men, lead them unto Christ. The Sunin the Heavens is no Parelius to the Sun of righteousness. The best Astronomer will never find the day star from on high in the rest of his number. What St. Austin said of Tully's works, is true of the whole Volume of the Creation, There are admirable things to be found in them: but the name of Christ

Rom. 1c. 14.

Act. 14. 14.

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Christ is not legible there. The work of Redemption is not engraven on the works of providence; if it had, a particular divine revelation had been unnecessary, and the Apostles were fent on a needless errand, which the world had understood without their Preaching, viz. That God was in Christ reconciling the world unto himself, not imputing to men their trespas-2 Cor. 5. 18, fes, and bath committed to them the Ministry of Reconciliation. How was the word of reconciliation committed to them, if it were common to them with the whole frame of the world? and the Apostle's Quare elsewhere might have been easily answered, How can men hear without a Preacher? For then they might have known the way of Salvation, without any special messengers sent to deliver it to them. I grant that God's long suffering and patience is intended to lead men to repentance, and that some general collections might be made from providence of the placability of God's nature, and that God never left himself without a witness of his goodness in the world, being kind to the unthankful, and doing good, in Luk. 6. 35, 36. giving rain and fruitful seasons. But though these things might fufficiently discover to such who were apprehensive of the guilt of fin, that God did not act according to his greatest severity, and thereby did give men encouragement to hearken out and enquire after the true way of being reconciled to God; yet all this amounts not to a firm foundation for faith as to the remission of sin, which doth suppose God himself publishing an act of grace and indempnity to the world, wherein he assures the pardon of sin to such as truly repent and unfeignedly believe his boly Gospel. Now is not this an inestimable advantage we enjoy by the Scriptures, that therein we understand what God himself hath discovered of his own na-

> 2. The Scriptures give the most faithful representation of the state and condition of the soul of man. The world was almost lost in Disputes concerning the nature, condition and immortality of the foul before divine revelation was made brown to mankind by the Gospel of Christ; but live in immedoriality was brought to light by the Gospel, and the future state

ture and perfections, and of his readiness to pardon sin upon those gracious terms of Faith and Repentance, and that which necessarily follows from these two, bearty and sincere obedience?

Sect. 6

of the foul of man, not discovered in an uncertain Platonical way, but with the greatest light and evidence from that God who hath the supreme disposal of souls, and therefore best knows and understands them. The Scriptures plainly and fully reveal a judgment to come, in which God will judge the secrets of all hearts, when every one must give an account of himself unto God, and God will call men to give an account of their stewardship here, of all the receipts they have had from him, and the expences they have been at, and the improvements they have made of the talents he put into their hands. So that the Gospel of Christ is the fullest instrument of discovery of the certainty of the future state of the soul, and the conditions which abide it, upon its being dislodged from the body. But this is not all which the Scripture difcovers as to the state of the soul; for it is not only a prospe-Etive-glaß, reaching to its future state, but it is the most faithfull looking-glaß, to discover all the spots and deformities of the foul: And not only shews where they are, but whence they came, what their nature is, and whither they tend. The true Original of all that disorder and discomposure which is in the foul of man, is only fully and fatisfactorily given us in the Word of God, as hath been already proved. The nature and working of this corruption in man, had never been fo clearly manifested, had not the Law and Will of God been discovered to the World; that is the glas whereby we see the secret workings of those Bees in our hearts, the corruptions of our natures; that fets forth the folly of our imaginations, the unruliness of our passions, the distempers of our wills, and the abundant deceitfulness of our hearts. And it is hard for the most Elephantine sinner (one of the greatest magnitude) so to trouble these waters, as not therein to discover the greatness of his own deformities. But that which tends most to awaken the drowsie, senseless spirits of men, the Scripture doth most fully describe the tendency of corruption, that the wages of sin is death, and the issue of continuance in fin will be the everlasting misery of the soul, in a perpetual Jeparation from the presence of God, and undergoing the lashes and severities of conscience to all eternity. What a great discovery is this of the faithfulness of God to Dddd the

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the World, that he fuffers not men to undoe themselves without letting them know of it before-hand, that they might avoid it! God feeks not to entrap men's Souls, nor doth he rejoyce in the milery and ruine of his creatures, but fully declares to them what the consequence and issue of their finfull practices will be, affures them of a judgment to come, declares his own future fewerity against contumacious sinners, that they might not think themselves surprized, and that if they had known there had been fo great danger in fin, they would never have been such fools, as for the sake of it to run into eternal misery. Now God, to prevent this, with the greatest plainness and faithfulness hath shewed men the nature and danger of all their fins, and asks them beforehand what they will doe in the end thereof; whether they are able to bear his wrath, and wrestle with everlasting burnings? if not, he bids them bethink themselves of what they have done already, and repent, and amend their lives, lest iniquity prove their ruine, and destruction overtake them, and that without remedy. Now if men have cause to prize and value a faithfull Monitor, one that tenders their good, and would prevent their ruine, we have cause exceedingly to prize and value the Scriptures, which give us the truest representation of the state and condition of our fouls.

2. The Scripture discovers to us the only way of pleasing God, and enjoying his favour. That clearly reveals the way (which man might have fought for to all eternity without particular revelation) whereby fins may be pardoned, and whatever we doe may be acceptable unto God. It shews us that the ground of our acceptance with God, is through Christ, whom he hath made a propitiation for the sins of the world, and who alone is the true and living way, whereby we may draw near to God with a true heart, in full assurance of faith, baving our hearts prinkled from an evil conscience. Through Christ we understand the terms on which God will shew fav ur and grace to the World, and by him we have ground of a majonoia, access with freedom and boldness unto God. On his account we may hope not only for grace to fubdue our fins, refift temptations, conquer the devil and the world; but having fought this good fight and finished our course,

by patient continuance in well-doing, we may justly look for glory, bonour, and immortality, and that crown of righteeufneß which is laid up for those who wait in faith, holiness, and humility, for the appearance of Christ from heaven. Now what things can there be of greater moment and importance for men to know, or God to reveal, than the nature of God, and our selves, the state and condition of our souls, the only way to avoid eternal misery, and enjoy everlasting blis.

The Scriptures discover not only matters of importance, but of the greatest depth and mysteriousness. There are many wonderfull things in the Law of God, things we may admire, but are never able to comprehend. Such are the eternal purposes and decrees of God, the doctrine of the Trinity, the Incarnation of the Son of God, and the manner of the operation of the Spirit of God on the Souls of men, which are all things of great weight and moment for us to understand and believe that they are, and yet may be unfearchable to our reason, as to the particular manner of them. What certain ground our faith stands on as to these things hath been already shewed, and therefore I forbear insisting on Book 2. ch. 8. them.

The Scripture comprehends matters of the most universal fatisfaction to the minds of men; though many things do much exceed our apprehensions, yet others are most suitable to the dictates of our nature. As Origen bid Celsus see, et C. Cels. lib. 30 μή τα τ πίσεως ημών τ κοιναίς εννοίαις αρχήθεν σαυαρορεύον α, με- P. 135. τατίθεση τες εύγνομόνως ακέον ας τε λερικών, whether it was not the agreeableness of the principles of faith with the common notions of humane nature, which prevailed most upon all candid and ingenuous auditors of them. And therefore as Socrates said of Heraclitus his Books, What he understood was excellent, and therefore he supposed that which he did not understand was so too: so ought we to say of the Scriptures, If those things which are within our capacity be so suitable to our natures and reasons, those cannot contradict our reafon which yet are above them. There are many things which the minds of men were sufficiently assured that they were, yet were to feek for fatisfaction concerning them, which they could never have had without Divine Revelation.

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Sect. 7. 2.

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the nature of true happiness, wherein it lay, and how to be obtained, which the Philosophers were so puzled with, the Scripture gives us full satisfaction concerning it. True contentment under the troubles of life, which the Scripture only acquaints us with the true grounds of; and all the prescriptions of Heathen Moralists sall as much short of, as the directions of an Empirick doth of a wise and skilfull Physician. Avoiding the fears of death, which can alone be through a grounded expectation of a suture state of happiness which death leads men to, which cannot be had but through the right understanding of the Word of God. Thus we see the excellency of the matters themselves contained in this revelation of the mind of God to the world.

Sett. 8.

As the matters themselves are of an excellent nature, so is the manner wherein they are revealed in the Scriptures, and that,

I. In a clear and perspicuous manner; not but there may be still some passages which are hard to be understood, as being either prophetical or confisting of ambiguous phrases, or containing matters above our comprehension; but all those things which concern the terms of man's salvation are delivered with the greatest evidence and perspicuity. Who cannot understand what these things mean, What doth the Lord require of thee, but to doe justly, and to love mercy, and to walk humbly with thy God? that without faith it is impossible to please God; that without boliness none shall see the Lord; that unless. we be born again, we can never enter into the Kingdom of Heaven; these and such like things are so plain and clear, that it is nothing but men's shutting their eyes against the light can keep them from understanding them; God intended these things as directions to men; and is not he able to speak intelligibly when he please? he that made the tongue, shall he not speak so as to be understood without an infallible Interpreter? especially when it is his design to make known to men the terms of their eternal bappines. Will God judge men at the great day for not believing those things which they could . not understand? Strange, that ever men should judge the Scriptures obscure in matters necessary, when the Scripture accounts it so great a judgment for men not to understand them.

573

If our Gospel be hid, it is hid to them that are lost; In whom 2 Cor. 4.34—the god of this world hath blinded the mind: of them which believe not, lest the light of the glorious Gospel of Christ should shine unto them. Sure Lot's door was visible enough, if it were a judgment for the men of Sodom not to see it; and the Scriptures then are plain and intelligible enough, if it be so great a judgment not to understand them.

2. In a powerfull and authoritative manner; as the things contained in Scripture do not so much beg acceptance as command it; in that the expressions wherein our duty is concerned are fuch as awe men's consciences and pierce to their bearts and to their secret thoughts; All things are open and na. Heb. 4. 12,13. ked before this Word of God; every secret of the mind and thought of the heart lies open to its stroke and force; it is quick and powerfull, hurper than a two-edged sword, piercing to the dividing afunder of soul and strit, and of the joynts and marrow, and is a discerner of the thoughts and intents of the heart. The Word is a Telescope to discover the great Luminaries of the world, the Truths of highest concernment to the fouls of men, and it is such a Microscope as discovers to us the smallest Atom of our thoughts, and discerns the most secret intent of the beart. And, as far as this light reacheth, it comes with power and authority, as it comes armed with the Majesty of that God who reveals it, whose authority extends over the foul and conscience of man in its most secret and hidden recesses.

3. In a pure and unmixed manner; in all other writings how good soever, we have a great mixture of droß and gold together; here is nothing but pure gold, Diamonds without flaws, Suns without spots. The most current coins of the world have their alloyes of baser metals, there is no such mixture in divine Truths; as they all come from the same Author, so they all have the same purity. There is a Urim and Thummim upon the whole Scripture, light and perfection in every part of it. In the Philosophers we may meet, it may be, with some scattered fragments of purer metal, amidst abundance of droß and impure oar; here we have whole avealges of gold, the same vein of purity and boliness running through the whole Book of Scriptures. Hence it is called the

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2 Tim. 1.13 form of Sound words; here have been no bucksters to corrupt and mix their own inventions with Divine Truths.

Sect 9.

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- 4. In an uniform and agreeable manner. This I grant is not sufficient of it self to prove the Scriptures to be Divine. because all men do not contradict themselves in their writings. but yet there are some peculiar circumstances to be considered in the agreeableness of the parts of Scripture to each other which are not to be found in mere humane writings. 1. That this doctrine was delivered by persons who lived in different ages and times from each other. Usually one age corrects anothers faults, and we are apt to pity the ignorance of our predecessors, when it may be our posterity may think us as ignorant as we doe them. But in the facred Scripture we read not one age condemning another; we find light still increasing in the series of times in Scripture, but no reflections in any time upon the ignorance, or weakness, of the precedent; the dimmest light was sufficient for its age, and was a · Quintil. lib. 1. step to further discovery. Quintilian gives it as the reason of the great uncertainty of Grammar rules, quia non analogia dimissa cælo formam loquendi dedit; that which he wanted as to Grammar, we have as to Divine Truths; they are delivered from beaven, and therefore are always uniform and agreeable
 - to each other. 2. By persons of different interests in the world. God made choice of men of all ranks to be Enditers of his Oracles, to make it appear it was no matter of State-policy or particular interest which was contained in his word, which persons of fuch different interests, could not have agreed in as they do. We have Moses, David, Solomon, persons of royal rank and quality; and can it be any mean thing, which these think it their glory to be Penners of? We have Isaiah, Daniel, and other persons of the highest education and accomplishments, and can it be any trivial thing which these imploy themselves in ? We have Amos, and other Prophets in the Old Testament, and the Apostles in the New, of the meaner fort of men in the world, yet all these joyn in consort together; when God tunes their pirits, all agree in the same strain of divine truths, and give light and harmony to each other.

3. By persons in different places and conditions; some in proferity in their own Countrey, some under banishment and advertity, yet all agreeing in the same substance of destrine; of which no alteration we see was made either for the flattery of those in power, or for avoiding mi/eries and calamities. And under all the different dispensations before, under and after the Law, though the management of things was different, vet the doctrine and design was for substance the same in all. All the different diffentations agree in the same common principles of religion; the same ground of acceptance with God, and obligation to duty was common to all, though the peculiar instances wherein God was served might be different, according to the ages of growth in the Church of God. So that this great uniformity confidered in these circumstances, is an argument that these things came originally from the same Spirit, though conveyed through different instruments to the knowledge of the world.

5. In a persuasive and convincing manner: and that these ways. I. Bringing divine truths down to our capacity, clothing spiritual matter in familiar expressions and similitudes, that so they might have the easier admission into our minds. 2. Propounding things as our interest which are our duty: thence God, so frequently in Scripture, recommends our duties to us under all those motives which are wont to have the greateft force on the minds of men; and annexeth gracious promifes to our performance of them; and those of the most weighty and concerning things. Of grace, favour, protection, deliverance, audience of prayers, and eternal happines, and if these will not prevail with men, what motives will? 3. Courting us to obedience, when he might not only command us to obey, but punish presently for disobedience. Hence are all those most pathetical and affectionate strains we read in Scri- Deut. 5. 29. pture. O that there were such a heart within them, that they would fear me and keep all my commandments always, that it might go well with them, and with their children after them. Wo unto thee, O Jerusalem, wilt thou not be made clean? Jer. 13. 27. when shall it once be? Turn ye, turn ye from your evil ways, Ezek. 33. 11. for why will ye die, O house of Israel? How shall I give thee Hos. 11. 8. up, Ephraim? how shall I deliver thee, Israel? how shall I make

Matt. 23. 37.

make thee as Admah? how shall I set thee as Zeboim? mine heart is turned within me, my repentings are kindled together. O Jerusalem, Jerusalem, how often would I have gathered thy children together, as a ben gathereth her chickens under her wings, and ye would not? What Majesty, and yet what fiveetness and condescension is there in these expressions? What obstinacy and rebellion is it in men for them to stand out against God, when he thus comes down from his throne of Majest and wooes rebellious sinners to return unto him that they may be pardoned? Such a matchless and unparallell d strain of Rhetorick is there in the Scripture, far above the art and infinuations of the most admired Orators. Thus we see the peculiar excellency of the manner wherein the matters contained in Scripture are revealed to us: thus we have confidered the excellency of the Scripture, as it is a discovery of God's mind to the world.

Sect. 10.

The Scriptures may be considered as a rule of life, or as a Law of God which is given for the Government of the lives of men, and therein the excellency of it lies in the nature of the duties, and the encouragements to the practice of them.

1. In the nature of the duties required, which are most becoming God to require, most reasonable for us to perform.

1. Most becoming God to require, as they are most suitable and agreeable to the Divine nature, the imitation of which in our actions is the substance of our Religion. Imitation of him in his goodness and boliness, by our constant endeavours of mortifying sin, and growing in grace and piety. In his grace and mercy, by our kindness to all men, forgiving the injuries men doe unto us, doing good to our greatest enemies. In his justice and equity, by doing as we would be done by, and keeping a conscience void of offence towards God and towards men. The first takes in the duties of the first, the other the duties of the second Table. All acts of piety towards God, are a part of Justice; for, as Tully saith, Quid aliud est pietas, nisi justitia adversus Deos? and so our loving God with our whole hearts, our entire and sincere obedience to his will, is a part of natural justice; for thereby we do but render unto God that which is his due from us as we are his creatures. We

fee then the whole duty of man, the fearing God and keeping bis Commandments, is as necessary a part of Justice, as the

rendring to every man his own is.

2. They are most reasonable for us to perform, in that, 1. Religion is not only a service of the reasonable faculties which are employed the most in it, the commands of the Scripture reaching the heart most, and the service required being a spiritual service, not lying in meats and drinks, or any outward observations, but in a sanctified temper of heart and mind, which discovers it felf in the course of a Christian's life; but, 2. The service it self of Religion is reasonable; the commands of the Gospel are such as no man's reason which considers them can doubt of the excellency of them. All natural worship is founded on the dictates of nature, all instituted worship on God's revealed will; and it is one of the prime dictates of nature, that God must be universally obeyed. Besides, God requires nothing but what is apparently man's interest to doe; God prohibits nothing but what will destroy him if he doth it; fo that the commands of the Scriptures are very just and reasonable.

2. The encouragements are more than proportionable to the difficulty of obedience. God's commands are in themselves easie. and most suitable to our natures. What more rational for a creature than to obey his Maker? all the difficulty of religion ariseth from the corruption of nature. Now God, to encourage men to conquer the difficulties arising thence, hath propounded the strongest motives and most prevailing arguments to obedience. Such are the considerations of God's love and goodness manifested to the world, by sending his Son into it, to die for sinners, and to give them an example which they are to follow, and by his readiness through him to pardon the fins, and accept the persons of such who so receive him as to walk in him; and by his promises of grace to assist them in the wrestling with the enemies of their salvation. And to all these add that glorious and unconceivable reward which God hath promifed to all those who sincerely obey him; and by these things we see how much the encouragements overweigh the difficulties, and that none can make the least pretence that there is not motive sufficient to down-weigh the

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troubles which attend the exercise of obedience to the Will of God. So that we fee what a peculiar excellency there is in the Scriptures as a rule of life, above all the Precepts of mere Moralifis, the foundation of obedience being laid deeper in man's obligation to serve his Maker, the practice of obedience being carried higher in those most holy precepts which are in Scripture, the reward of obedience being incomparably greater than what men are able to conceive, much less to promile or bestow.

Sect. II. 3,

The Excellency of the Scriptures appears, as they contain in them a Covenant of Grace, or the transactions between God and Man, in order to his eternal happiness. The more memorable any transactions are, the more valuable are any authentick records of them. The Scriptures contain in them the Magna Charta of Heaven, an Act of pardon with the Reyal affent of Heaven, a Proclamation of good-will from God towards men; and can we then fet too great a value on that which contains all the remarkable passages between God and the fouls of men, in order to their felicity, from the beginning of the world? Can we think, fince there is a God in the world of infinite goodness, that he should suffer all mankind to perish inevitably without his propounding any means for escaping of eternal misery? Is God so good to men as to this present life; and can we think if man's foul be immortal, as we have proved it is, that he should wholly neglect any offer of good to men as to their eternal welfare? Or is it possible to imagine that man should be happy in another world without God's promising it, and prescribing conditions in order to it? If so, then this happines is no free gift of God, unless he hath the bestowing and promising of it? and man is no rational agent, unless a reward suppose conditions to be performed in order to the obtaining it; or man may be bound to conditions which were never required him; or if they must be required, then there must be a revelation of God's will, whereby he doth require them: And if fo, then there are some Records extant of the transactions between God and man, in order to his eternal bappines: For what reason can we have to imagine that such Records, if once extant, should not continue still, especially since the same goodness

goodness of God is engaged to preserve such Records, which at first did cause them to be indicted? Supposing then such Records extant somewhere in the world of these grand transactions between God and mens souls, our business is brought to a period; for what other Records are there in the world that can in the least vye with the Scriptures, as to the giving so just an account of all the transactions between God and men from the foundation of the world? Which gives us all the steps, methods and ways whereby God hath made known his mind and will to the world, in order to man's eternal Salvation. It remains only then that we adore and magnifice the goodness of God in making known his will to us, and that we set a value and esteem on the Scriptures, as on the only authentick Instruments of that Grand Charter of Peace, which God hath revealed in order to man's Eternal Happiness.

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